

Contemporary Psychology

A JOURNAL OF REVIEWS

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Page	291	Paperbound Books in the Classroom, by C. S. Hall
	294	Fads and Foibles in Modern Sociology and Related Sciences, by P. A. Sorokin <i>Reviewed by C. E. OSGOOD</i>
	296	The Psychology of Industrial Conflict, by Ross Stagner <i>Reviewed by MASON HAIRE</i>
	297	Das Gemüt: Grundgedanken zu einer phänomenologischen Philosophie und Theorie des menschlichen Gefühlslebens, by S. Strasser <i>Reviewed by M. R. GILBERT</i>
	298	The Measurement of Occupational Aptitude, by E. E. Chisell <i>Reviewed by D. E. SUPER</i>
	299	Identity and Interpersonal Competence: A New Direction in Family Research, by N. N. Foote and L. S. Cottrell, Jr. <i>Reviewed by H. C. KELMAN</i>
	300	Opinions and Personality, by M. B. Smith, J. S. Bruner, and R. W. White <i>Reviewed by MARIE JANODA</i>
	301	The School Psychologist, by E. M. Bower <i>Reviewed by D. E. SUPER</i>
	302	Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education, by J. P. Guilford <i>Reviewed by J. C. STANLEY</i>

(Continued on inside cover)

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CONTENTS—continued

- 302 **The Psychology of Human Differences**, by Leona E. Tyler
Reviewed by D. A. WORCESTER
- 303 **CP SPEAKS . . .**
By the EDITOR
- 304 **The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child**. Vol. X, by Ruth S. Eissler, Anna Freud, Heinz Hartmann, and Ernest Kris (Eds.)
Reviewed by J. L. GEWIRTZ
- 304 **Psychopharmacology**, by N. S. Kline (Ed.)
Reviewed by C. T. MORGAN
- 306 **The Mind in Chains**, by W. L. Moore
Reviewed by MILTON WEXLER
- 306 **Basic Statistical Concepts**, by J. K. Adams
Reviewed by L. E. MOSES
- 307 **Theories of Learning**, by E. R. Hilgard
Reviewed by W. K. ESTES
- 308 **Manuel pratique de psychologie expérimentale**, by Paul Fraisse
Reviewed by HAROLD SCHLOSBERG
- 309 **Psychotherapy and Counseling**, by R. W. Miner (Ed.)
Reviewed by NICHOLAS HOBBS
- 309 **Methods in the Study of Administrative Leadership**, by R. M. Stogdill and C. L. Shartle
Patterns of Administrative Performance, by R. M. Stogdill, C. L. Shartle and Associates
Reviewed by L. B. WARD
- 310 **After Divorce**, by W. J. Goode
Reviewed by C. R. ADAMS
- 311 **The Norwegians: A Study in National Culture**, by David Rodnick
Reviewed by AASE G. SKARD
- 311 **The Longitudinal Study of Individual Development**, by L. H. Stott
Reviewed by LOIS M. STOLZ
- 312 **Mental Health and Infant Development**. Vol. I: **Papers and Discussions**. Vol. II: **Case Histories**, by Kenneth Soddy (Ed.)
Reviewed by URIE BRONFENBRENNER
- 312 **Psychology in Education**, by J. B. Stroud
Reviewed by V. H. NOLL
- 314 **FILMS**
Reviewed by ADOLPH MANOIL, Film Editor
Audio-Visual Books and Materials Received
Psychotherapy
Child Psychology
- 318 **List of Books Received**

Books for review, review manuscripts, letters for publication, and correspondence concerning editorial matters should be sent to the Editor, Edwin G. Boring, Memorial Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge 38, Mass.

Films for review and correspondence concerning films should be sent to the Film Editor, Adolph Manoil, Park College, Parkville, Mo.

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Paperbound Books in the Classroom

By CALVIN S. HALL
Western Reserve University

HAVE YOU been plagued, as I have been, by the problem of how to get your students to *buy* and *read* more books in connection with the courses you offer? If so, have you considered using inexpensive paperbound books to supplement the regular textbook assignments?

Many teachers of psychology do not realize that there is a growing number of paperbound books which can be used effectively in classes in psychology. It is my aim in this article (and perhaps in subsequent ones) to call attention to selected titles available in paperbound editions which are relevant to psychology. I also wish to discuss some features of paperbound book publishing which I believe may interest psychologists.

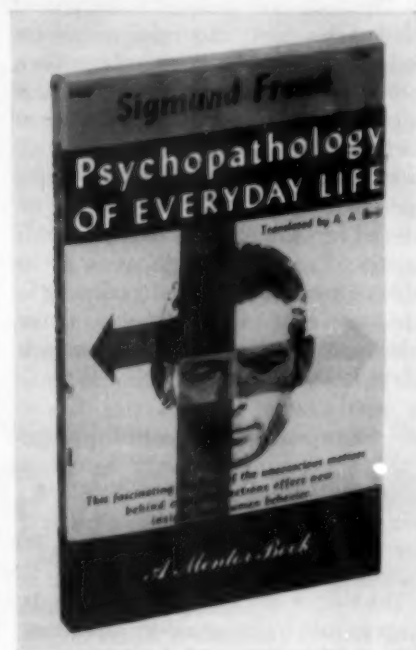
It is estimated that since 1939, when this new era in paperback publishing began in the United States, two billion copies of about twelve thousand titles have been sold. At the present time approximately 100 new titles are being added each month. Paperbound books appear and disappear from the drugstore racks about as rapidly as magazines, which is not surprising since they are distributed by magazine wholesalers. This method of marketing poses a problem for the teacher who wants to know what titles are available. I have gone to as many as eight drugstores before locating a book I wanted. There is, however, no need to waste one's time in this way

any longer, for R. R. Bowker Co., 62 West 45th Street, N. Y. 36, publishes twice a year an Index to 5,000 paperbound books. You can subscribe to this Index, *Paperbound Books in Print*, for three dollars a year or buy a single copy for two dollars. Better yet get your library to subscribe to it. The entries are classified by title, author and subject matter, and the price, publisher and his address are given. The Index gives explicit information on how to order paperbound books.

Many of the publishers will send out examination copies on request, and some of them send out advance notices of forthcoming volumes. A postcard to the publisher will get you on his mailing list. Some paperbound publishers maintain educational departments for serving the needs of teachers.

Paperbound books can be divided into two price-groups. The first group is really low priced, fifty cents and under. They are the ones you ordinarily find at the corner drugstore, supermarkets, and airports. Their price is low primarily because they are distributed to over 100,000 outlets. The second group usually ranges in price from 60 cents to \$1.65. They are distributed through the 1,400 bookstores in the United States.

Not all paperbound books are reprints of books previously published in hard-cover editions, although most of them are. Many of the British Penguin books which



ALTHOUGH MENTOR BOOKS ARE MASS-DISTRIBUTED, THEIR COVERS ARE ATTRACTIVE AND EYE-CATCHING (New American Library)

appear under the Pelican imprint in the United States are original paperbound editions. Occasionally a book is published simultaneously in hard and soft covers. Most of the reprints are unabridged and will usually say so on the cover.

Some teachers may object to the lurid covers that will be found on a few of the books which they wish to use. It is my impression that the sexy cover for serious books is going out of style although there are a few recent examples of completely irrelevant cover designs. The Mentor series published by New American Library is distinguished for its artistic cover designs. The higher priced paperbound books are usually attractively bound, but then they are not required to make

their presence felt in a busy bus terminal or cigar store.

The Spring 1956 edition of the Bowker Index lists 58 titles under the subject heading *Psychology*. I have examined many of these books and will make brief comments upon a representative sample of them. The books on psychology tend to run to psychoanalysis and sex, as might be expected, but there is a good deal of diversity nonetheless.

The books are grouped under several subject headings, and price ranges are indicated by stars. Three stars signifies a price range of fifty cents or less, two stars a price range from fifty cents up to and including one dollar, and one star all prices over a dollar. The addresses of the publishers of the paperbound books reviewed here are listed at the end of this article. Paperbound editions can be ordered from the publisher by referring to the name of the series and the number which appear between parentheses in each of the following citations.

Comparative Psychology

- *** Fox, H. M. *The personality of animals*. (Pelican, A78; rev. ed.) Penguin Books, 1952. Pp. 155. \$.50. Original.

The title of this book is misleading. It takes up such topics as sensory capacities, migration, instinct and language, and very little on personality as that word is usually defined. In my estimation it does not compare with Katz's volume, *Animals and Men* (see below) which covers the same materials. Some teachers may prefer it because it is 'easier' reading than Katz and might be better adapted for the beginning course. No index.

- *** Katz, D. *Animals and men*. (Pelican, A279.) Penguin Books, 1953. Pp. 192. \$.50. Reprint.

This is a new translation of the 1948 revised edition of Katz's well-known book. The translators state that some rearrangement of material, condensation, and additions of new illustrative material have been made with the consent of the author. There are sixteen pages of plates, a glossary, and a subject index. It is a 'natural' for courses in comparative psychology, but it would not be out of place to use it in the beginning course. Written in a lively style, it is sure to capture and keep the student's attention and to

acquaint him with the field of comparative psychology. There are excellent discussions of numerous classical investigations.

Personality and Abnormal Psychology

- *** Ellis, H. *Psychology of sex*. (Mentor, Ms119.) New American Library, 1954. Pp. 272. \$.50. Unabridged. Reprint.

It is good to have this 'classic' in a cheap edition. To my mind, this is the best introduction for the student to the psychology of sex. May be used in many psychology courses. Glossary and index.

- ** HADFIELD, J. A. *Dreams and nightmares*. (Pelican, A294.) Penguin Books, 1954. Pp. 244. \$.65. Original.

An excellent, comprehensive account of dreams and their meaning. The author reviews a number of dream theories and then proposes one of his own. One of the best references I have seen. Can be used to great advantage in any course in which dreams are discussed. Index.

- *** LINDNER, R. *The fifty-minute hour*. (No. A1413.) Bantam Books, 1956. Pp. 207. \$.35. Unabridged. Reprint.

If you are a Lindner fan as I am, you will be grateful for having one of his last books in this inexpensive edition. Fascinating case histories which illustrate a wide range of therapeutic techniques. I intend to use this book in my personality course. It is unfortunate that the publishers have dressed it in a repulsive cover.

- *** MOTTRAM, V. H. *The physical basis of personality*. (Pelican, A139; 2nd ed.) Penguin Books, 1952. Pp. 170. \$.50. Original.

A lively account of heredity and the neurohumoral system together with a challenging essay on materialism. Could be used in the introductory course and courses in personality. Glossary and index.

- ** SCHWARZ, O. *The psychology of sex*. (Pelican, A194.) Penguin Books, 1949. Pp. 286. \$.65. Original.

I much prefer Ellis' book to this one. Schwarz does a lot of preaching and moralizing, and, although the discussion is fairly enlightened, it is no substitute for the more dispassionate and straightforward presentation of the same subject by Ellis. It would certainly stimulate

classroom discussion because Schwarz is very sure about many things that most of us are still pondering. Index.

- *** WERTHAM, F. *The show of violence*. (Eton, E106.) Avon Publishing Co., 1951. Pp. 221. \$.25. Unabridged. Reprint.

This book by a prominent psychiatrist presents several case histories of killers. Wertham manages to convey a lot of information about the motives of man in a very absorbing manner. Like Lindner, Wertham has an unusual flair for transforming case material into literature. It is bound to start some lively discussions in classes in personality and abnormal psychology, because Wertham is a man of strong convictions. Index.

Psychical Research

- *** DINGWALL, E. J., AND LANGDON-DAVIES, J. *The unknown—is it nearer?* (Signet Key, Ks336.) New American Library, 1956. Pp. 160. \$.35. Original.

A readable sympathetic account of psychical research. Although not as comprehensive as the Tyrrell volume (see below), it covers much the same ground.

- ** TYRRELL, G. N. M. *The personality of man*. (Pelican, A165.) Penguin Books, 1947. Pp. 295. \$.65. Original.

The title is misleading. The book is an account of psychical research by one of its leading English devotees. Chock-full of interesting observations and experiments, it is one of the best partisan introductions to the subject I have seen. Students are always interested in psychical research, and, if you want them to have the other side of the picture (assuming you don't believe in it), here is a book to recommend.

Psychoanalysis

- *** BAKER, RACHEL. *Sigmund Freud for everybody*. (Originally published under the title *Sigmund Freud*, 1952. No. 712.) Popular Library, 1955. Pp. 143. \$.25. Unabridged. Reprint.

This is a popularized version of Freud's life. As far as I can tell it does not deviate significantly from the material presented in Ernest Jones, although of course there is much less of it. It might be used in a course in the history of psychology or wherever the instructor wanted to acquaint students with Freud's life.

Unfortunately the cover is inappropriate. A glossary of terms and suggested readings, no index.

*** FORDHAM, FRIEDA. *An introduction to Jung's psychology*. (Pelican, A273.) Penguin Books, 1953. Pp. 128. \$.50. Original.

A very fine digest of Jung's basic concepts by a well-qualified person. Exceedingly useful for courses in personality, viewpoints and even the beginning course. Glossary, bibliography, and index.

*** FREEMAN, LUCY. *Fight against fears*. (Cardinal, C-82.) Pocket Books, 1952. Pp. 335. \$.35. Unabridged. Reprint.

I use this book alternately with Knight's *Story of My Psychoanalysis* to give students a patient's view of psychoanalysis. In general, students prefer the Knight account, but either book serves the purpose for which it is used. The publishers tell me this book is temporarily out of print, which is one of the inconveniences encountered in using paper-bound editions.

*** FREUD, S. *A general introduction to psychoanalysis*. (No. M5001.) Perma-books, 1953. Pp. 480. \$.50. Unabridged. Reprint.

This is probably the most often reprinted of Freud's books. Index.

*** FREUD, S. *Psychopathology of everyday life*. (Mentor, M67.) New American Library, 1951. Pp. 168. \$.35. Unabridged. Reprint.

This is the familiar Brill translation of Freud's most popular book. It makes a good introduction to Freud for the beginning student. I use it in my course in personality and adjustment but it could also be used in the introductory course. No index.

** JONES, E. *Hamlet and Oedipus*. (Anchor, A31.) Doubleday, 1955. Pp. 194. \$.75. Unabridged. Reprint.

Many teachers will appreciate having this minor classic available in an inexpensive edition. Index.

* JUNG, C. G. *Modern man in search of a soul*. (Harvest, HB2.) Harcourt, Brace, n.d. Pp. 244. \$1.15. Unabridged. Reprint.

This series of essays by the man who is often called the "greatest living psychologist" pretty well covers many of Jung's principal ideas. An excellent primary source. By using it in conjunction with Progoff and Fordham one would be able



A DIGNIFIED AND TASTEFUL COVER FOR THE COLLEGE BOOKSTORE TRADE (University of Chicago Press)

to teach a whole course on Jung alone—exclusively from paperbound books. Total cost of the three books—\$2.90; total number of pages—671. No index.

*** KNIGHT, J. *The story of my psychoanalysis*. (No. 866.) Pocket Books, 1952. Pp. 211. \$.25. Unabridged. Reprint.

I use this book in my course on personality to give students a patient's account of his own psychoanalysis. It works very well for this purpose and students uniformly report that they have learned a great deal from reading it.

* MULLAHY, P. *Oedipus—myth and complex*. (Evergreen, E23.) Grove Press, 1955. Pp. 370. \$1.45. Abridged. Reprint.

Actually, this book is much more than a treatise on the Oedipus complex. It contains succinct and elementary reviews of the theories of Freud, Jung, Adler, Rank, Fromm, Horney, and Sullivan. Less detailed than the new volume by Ruth Monroe, which covers the same ground, it is more appropriate for undergraduate courses in psychology. No index.

* PROGOFF, I. *Jung's psychology and its social meaning*. (Evergreen, E-24.) Grove Press, 1955. Pp. 299. \$1.25. Unabridged. Reprint.

A very fine account of Jung's ideas and their implications for the social sciences. Less elementary and not as general as Frieda Fordham's fine little book on Jung, Progoff's work would be more suitable for advanced courses in personality theory and social psychology. Index.

*** STEKEL, W. *The meaning and psychology of dreams*. (Bard, 2.) Avon Publishing Co. Pp. 305. \$.50. Abridged. Reprint.

Selected chapters from Stekel's two-volume work, *The Interpretation of Dreams*, with a lengthy introduction by W. J. Fielding on *What Your Dream Symbols Mean*. Although I am not an admirer of Stekel, I note that many issues are pointed up in this book which could lead to spirited class discussion. It is filled with interesting dreams from a variety of patients. For classes in personality, abnormal and clinical. Glossary and index of dreams.

Miscellaneous

** BROWN, J. A. C. *The social psychology of industry*. (Pelican, A296.) Penguin Books, 1954. Pp. 310. \$.85. Original.

Brown, an industrial psychiatrist, has written a penetrating account of some of the most challenging issues relating to the world of work. There are chapters on the formal and informal organization of industry, motivation, opinion surveys, leadership, and frustration. The author's grasp of the literature and his ability to present complex ideas in a lively and comprehensible manner makes this one of the best books in industrial psychology that I have read. Index.

** DREVER, J. *A dictionary of psychology*. (Penguin, R5.) Penguin Books, 1952. Pp. 317. \$.65. Original.

This dictionary contains about 4500 definitions of psychological and related terms. It is weak on the technical words used by contemporary American psychologists, e.g., Hull, Tolman, Allport.

** EYSENCK, H. J. *Uses and abuses of psychology*. (Pelican, A281.) Penguin Books, 1953. Pp. 318. \$.65. Original.

Eysenck examines with a highly critical eye some of the findings and applications of psychology. Interesting and controversial chapters on the use of tests, the effectiveness of psychotherapy, the roots of prejudice, and national character. Well written, this book should initiate many 'hot' arguments in advanced courses in psychology. Packed with information. Index.

*** KNIGHT, MARGARET (Ed.). *William James*. (Pelican, A229.) Penguin Books, 1950. Pp. 248. \$.50. Original.

Extracts from *Principles of Psychology*, *Briefer Course*, *Varieties of*

Religious Experience, and several others, together with a sparkling essay on James by the editor. For teachers who like their students to have some contact with primary sources. Probably most useful for history and systems courses. No index.

* STRAUSS, A. (Ed.). *The social psychology of George Herbert Mead*. (Phoenix, P6.) University of Chicago Press, 1956. Pp. 296. \$1.50.

Excerpts from the writings of one of the most seminal figures in social psychology, the father of modern role-theory. A very useful book for courses in social psychology. Strauss has contributed an introduction which shows Mead's place in the intellectual movements of the twentieth century. Index.

Addresses of Publishers

- Avon Publishing Co., 575 Madison Ave., N. Y. 22.
 Bantam Books, 25 West 45th St., N. Y. 36.
 Doubleday Co., Garden City, N. Y.
 Grove Press, 795 Broadway, N. Y. 3.
 Harcourt, Brace & Co., 383 Madison Ave., N. Y. 17.
 New American Library, 501 Madison Ave., N. Y. 22.
 Penguin Books, 3300 Clipper Mill Rd., Baltimore 11.
 Permabooks, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, N. Y. 20.
 Pocket Books, Rockefeller Center, N. Y. 20.
 Popular Library, 10 E. 40th St., N. Y. 16.
 University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago 37.



Life being very short, and the quiet hours of it few, we ought to waste none of them in the reading of valueless books.

—JOHN RUSKIN



Judgments More Jovian than Jovial

Pitirim A. Sorokin

Fads and Foibles in Modern Sociology and Related Sciences

Chicago: Henry Regnery, 1956. Pp. 357. \$10.00.

By CHARLES E. OSGOOD

University of Illinois

THIS is an angry book. Its expressed purpose is a "cleansing operation" on the social sciences. Sorokin selects vulnerable areas for his wire-brush treatment, and one looks hopefully for that combination of understanding, logical analysis, and penetrating insight which can lay bare our foibles and illuminate ways to further progress. But his criticisms tend toward the destructive rather than the constructive, are intemperate rather than coolly weighed, and too frequently he descends to a species of name-calling which, though vigorous and colorful, is not likely to gain a sympathetic ear. This is regrettable, because Sorokin has the brilliance of mind and pen, the erudition, and the breadth of perspective to do his colleagues a real service in critical essay.

Amnesia. Sorokin deplors "a wide occurrence of amnesia and discoverers' complex among modern sociologists and psychosocial investigators." Certainly we are less cognizant than we should be of the works of great thinkers of the past and in consequence often strut about like "new Columbuses." But this is not so much because new species, "omnibus statistical researcher-professors" or "business men in science" are taking over the Halls of Ivy, as Sorokin implies, but more because the number of investigators and investigations in these fields is expanding geometrically. It is even becoming difficult to keep abreast of the current developments in one's own field, and the exhaustive scholarship Sorokin demands rapidly reaches a stage of diminishing returns. Hence we are seeing the splintering of specialties into yet finer specializations—one of which, of course, is specialization in the history of one's field.

Obtuse and sham-scientific jargon. Among the "speech disorders" attributed to contemporary psychosocial writers are blind transference of terms from the physical sciences, ponderous expressions

of platitudes, and the introduction of neologisms which obscure rather than clarify ideas. I would agree that the 'metanerg' and 'syntality' of R. B. Cattell, the 'valence' and 'locomotion' of Lewin, and the many, many neologisms of Parsons and Shils or of Tolman probably do these men a disservice in communicating to others, but, on the other hand, there are good reasons (not discussed by Sorokin) for innovation in scientific language.

The "Wonderland of Small Groups." Sorokin is at his caustic best here. The members of this "Mutual Back-Patting Insurance Company" have never adequately defined a small group; the groups they study are really casual congeries rather than organized groups (and hence their results are not generalizable). Just about everything this "cult" has said and done has been said and done by earlier social scientists and even by the ancients. And, finally, they have contributed nothing but pompous platitudes to the literature. As to the latter, Sorokin cites many such statements as Cartwright's, that "any reduction in the ability of the group to meet the needs of a member will decrease the attractiveness of the group for him." What a revelation! cries Sorokin. Yet, in presenting the results of an experiment of his own on the ability of people to predict their future time-allotments to activities, we find this gem: "The more stable and routine the social life in which an individual lives and acts, the higher the accuracy of prediction." Oh, divine understanding! Oh, sweet truth! Oh, fudge! (to paraphrase Sorokin). It would seem that the discovery of platitudes is a common fate of social scientists—which, in a way, is not surprising (particularly if we substitute 'substantiation' for 'discovery').

Pseudo-operationalism. So-called operational definitions have often been used to sidestep difficult questions of validity,

and this assertion would be worth documenting. But it soon becomes apparent that the author's meaning of 'operationalism' has little in common with this reviewer's. For Sorokin 'operationalism' seems to be equated with any empirical method. We find him saying, "Only experimental operations performed for the sake of proving or disproving certain ideas (which are nonoperational) can be of evidential value." Or again, "Historical events in all their uniqueness . . . cannot be reproduced in any present or future 'operational' setting . . . they cannot be 'researched' operationally." Sorokin treats both Stouffer's opinion studies on the American soldier and S. A. Dodd's use of concepts like time, space, and population as cases of pseudo-operationalism.

Testomania. Sorokin sees us as "living in an age of testocracy . . . [Tests] are largely responsible for our happiness or despair . . ." This 'viewing with alarm' is so broad-gauged as to be farcical. Actually, his criticisms of testing procedures are more those of the intelligent layman than those of the sophisticated professional—the tests are brief paper-and-pencil or "voice-reactional" affairs, asking about subjective states or purely hypothetical situations, and, unlike the reading of a thermometer or barometer, the results must be interpreted (a fairer analogy would have been with the problems of weather forecasting). He pays little attention to the statistical procedures whereby these "flimsy" tests are evaluated, however. He prefers the "real" tests imposed by every society every day, like being promoted or demoted in a job or being initiated into a monastic order. On the basis of only two studies, Terman and Ogden's *The Gifted Child Grows Up* (which, in my opinion, is badly misinterpreted) and a report on *Assessment of Men* (OSS), he concludes, "first, intelligence tests are very inadequate and highly unreliable; second, their infallibility is largely a myth [*who ever claimed they were infallible?*]; third, their 'precise' measurements are only a pseudo-mathematical screen hiding the arbitrary assumptions of the metromaniac numerologists."

Quantophrenia. This "disease" has infected "government agencies, business corporations, big and small foundations, universities, and other institutions that

furnish the funds for research." It is characterized by the use of sham mathematics, by the bootlegging of mathematical formulas from the physical sciences, by the cult of numerology, and by attempts to scale essentially nonscalar qualitative data. Many of the points made in this section are well taken. But, as an example of numerology, we find the rather magnificent empirical regularities demonstrated by G. K. Zipf equated with the purely mystic periodicities described in ancient Indian religions and by astrologers. And we find Lazarsfeld's method of 'latent classes' exploded by pointing out that it is inconsistent with the quantum theory of modern physics! Sorokin's criticism of statistical methods per se really extends only to the use of the correlation coefficient to infer causal relations. Hypothesis-testing statistics and multivariate designs he does not mention, although they are relevant to some of his later arguments about the experimental method and prediction in the social sciences.

Experimentation. Sorokin's discussion of the experimental method displays an almost complete lack of sophistication with respect to the logic of random sampling and related matters. For example, the *coup de grâce* for experimentation in the social sciences is that members of control groups can never be matched perfectly over thousands of characteristics with members of experimental groups—so the notion of 'control' is an illusion. The studies of Hovland *et al.* on effects of mass communications Sorokin holds up as glaring examples of this fallacy. The situation becomes ludicrous when he takes Bruner to task for having hypothetical robots make choices according to a table of random numbers as a basis for estimating deviation from chance in the actual subjects' choices—this is not a chance level but the "specific, crystallized form assigned to the robots by the investigators."

Prediction and scientific theory. An interesting discussion of this topic is marred by Sorokin's failure to distinguish between inductive and deductive prediction. Also, disregarding his own stricture about aping the physical sciences, he argues that the behavior of individuals or groups cannot be predicted because of the Heisenberg uncertainty principle governing the movements of



PITIRIM A. SOROKIN

elementary particles. And then, in almost the same breath and with respect to his own forecasts in the 1920s, he says, "so far, historical processes have been unfolding according to my 'schedule,'" whereas "most of the 'scientific predictions' of my critics . . . have been thrown into history's garbage can." His approach to social predictions is worth conjuring with, however. As I understand it, he tries to understand the essential "meaningful-causal" relationships that characterize the supersystem of a given society (its ideology) and, on the assumption that this character must congruently infuse all of its subsystems (religion, science, art, politics), he asserts that changes in any subsystem can be predicted from the observed changes in any other subsystem.

IN THE final sections on 'obsolete' vs. 'modern' theories of cognition, we get more insight into Sorokin's own views. The 'obsolete' empirical theory of cognition—characteristic of the "sensitive" materialism of this period in our society—maintains a sharp distinction between the knower and the known. This is its limitation in achieving real understanding. According to the 'modern' theory, on the other hand, "it is possible for the knower and the known to merge into one unity . . . [this] is the only way for the adequate cognition of the ultimate or true reality; . . . since this reality is

infinite . . . intuitional knowledge of it cannot be expressed in words, concepts, definitions, measurements or other external means of communication." The mental concentration of a genuine yogi who finally reaches the state of *samadhi* is given as an illustration of such super-conscious, intuitional cognition.

Sorokin claims that contemporary social scientists are contemptuous of the intuitional method. He is wrong. Most of us would certainly agree that intuition (or insight, or genius, or grace) has been as important in scientific discovery as it has been baffling. What Sorokin fails to realize, however, is that there is and must be (in *science*) a sharp distinction between intuition as a means of discovering hypotheses and intuition as a means of testing the verity of propositions. He makes what I believe is the fatal mistake of accepting his own intuitions as the ultimate test of truth, and once this step is taken there is, of course, no doubt and hence no reason for humility.

Industrial Psychology Goes Basic

Ross Stagner

The Psychology of Industrial Conflict

New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1956. Pp. ix + 550. \$8.00.

By MASON HAIRE
University of California

THE FIELD that has been known as *applied psychology* seems to be undergoing a change, and Stagner's book is a part of this change. By the weight of historical fact, applied psychology can be taken to have meant the application of psychological findings and methods, rather than principles, to problems occurring outside of the laboratory and to problems whose solutions lead to other goals than understanding behavior. The field of aptitude-testing drew heavily on conceptual work on individual differences, but its texts mainly emphasize tests and measurements designed to improve a working group. Applied psychophysics has been largely a collection of empirical determinations of limens and the like for the solution of specific problems of design.

Currently a rather different trend seems to be appearing. The problems of applied psychology are seen to be the same problems that occur in any other kind of psychology, but they appear in a special setting. The applied field supplies the particular arena in which behavior must be investigated, but it does not change the essential character of the psychological problem. The 'understand, predict, and control behavior,' that has been such a favorite definition of the goal of psychology in introductory courses, has been typically split to leave the 'understanding' to the laboratory scientist and the 'predict and control' to the applied psychologist, in much the traditional relation of the physicist to the engineer. Nowadays the applied area has begun to move under the objective of 'understanding,' relinquishing the 'predicting and controlling' to the layman who operates within the application. Stagner's book is seen clearly to be in the new tradition.

He begins the text itself with a fairly extended presentation of principles of perception, starting at an elementary conceptual level and building his analysis thereon. Such a start commits him to a neo-phenomenological approach which is likely sharply to divide the allegiance of his readers but which seems to me to be most fruitful. He continues the perceptual analysis, shading it imperceptibly into a consideration of attitudes as a problem of organizing the environment. Next come some principles regarding motivation (including fairly heavy weight on frustration and aggression), and a review of research and theory on group behavior and leadership. All of this discussion may be considered as the groundwork of psychological theory on which the rest is built, and it occupies about half the book. Proceeding from this base he goes on to take up such problems as management and union tactics, the strike, and industrial peace.

This rough outline indicates the sense in which the book is an attempt to state general psychological problems and to see their application in specific social fields. Stagner shows the operation of psychological factors in the understanding of social phenomena, rather than emphasizing how one might use such psychological insights to manipulate a particular outcome.

It should be pointed out that, while the general structure of the whole book seems to argue for such an interpretation, Stagner himself does not agree with me, not at least in his explicit statement in his preface. He says; "The physical sciences have now achieved such success that it is possible for all men to die together. Relatively little is being done to make it possible for us to live together. . . . It seems to me that we should be collecting, organizing, and evaluating knowledge from all the social sciences in so far as it bears on the resolution of group conflicts." At first blush this sounds like a proposal of the how-to-do-it school that has characterized applied psychology in the past. However, he says, subsequently: "This book offers no formula solutions to industrial conflict. . . . The psychological principles here derived and illustrated can be of great practical importance to anyone in industry. However, they must be applied with due consideration for the concrete economic and social context of any given policy. Such questions go well beyond the scope I have set for this volume." The final statement of the preface seems to stand firmly for the basic understanding of behavior in industrial conflict. The initial cry for solutions perhaps reflects the general regret of the social scientist at not being able to set the world right. The physicists felt this need first and most keenly as they began to see what they had done. Then the psychologists began to feel it when they wanted to undo some of the by-products of technological advances. Hardly anyone can avoid the sense of frustration that comes from not having the conceptual and methodological specifics to provide an immediate palliative to what is obviously an acute problem. It seems likelier, however, that an eventual solution will come from the continued attempt, such as this one, to further a basic understanding rather than from the present application of available insights.

STAGNER is particularly to be commended for some bold and fruitful innovations in his handling of the material. In the chapter on management tactics he takes up many of the lecture headings in a course in personnel

psychology—merit ratings, job evaluation, time and motion study, and the like—and in the following chapter on union tactics he considers the traditional topics in industrial relations—featherbedding, jurisdictional strikes, industry-wide bargaining, and the like—integrating them all into the social psychological problem of the relation between labor and management. Particularly striking, perhaps, is his treatment of cooperation and competition. The field of industrial conflict has been populated chiefly by economists and psychologists. It is only slightly oversimplifying the situation to say that the psychologists, working with an eye on the model of participation and brotherly love, have emphasized cooperation as the source of most social good. The economist, on the other hand, with a long history of free-enterprise capitalism in his conceptual background, has extolled the creative benefits of competition and a rugged individualism. It is enough that our political decisions seem necessarily to be oversimplified into these either-or decisions. Our scientific analyses should be kept free of the tendency. Yet Stagner's is the first book to my knowledge to deal with the problem squarely and to consider the various situations in which one or the other might be optimum.

THE VOLUME is well written and well organized. Stagner's own research in the field has heavily influenced his approach to the problems and, at the same time, made him better able to assess and integrate other allied research. It does not seem to me that the present volume fits as a basic text in many courses that are currently given, but that comment may well be a criticism of our courses rather than a shortcoming in the book.

Stagner's treatment of the problems of industrial conflict is complete, clear, and detailed. It is a scholarly work, carefully built and documented. It carries the long tradition of the past of psychology into the most modern conceptual refinements of social perception, role relationships, the new look in perception, and the like. Since it is the only book that aims to bring the weight of psychological research and theory to bear on industrial conflict, it is without peer. The care and completeness with which it is done suggests that it will stand out for a long time

as the definitive statement in this area. It does not deal in the usual fashions with the areas typically found in a book called *Industrial Psychology*, and only tangentially with the areas usually covered in one called *Human Relations*. It mainly covers the field of labor-management relations, and as such is a complement to the other two fields.

Intuiting Meanings Is Serious Business

S. Strasser

Das Gemüt: Grundgedanken zu einer phänomenologischen Philosophie und Theorie des menschlichen Gefühlslebens
Utrecht and Antwerp: Uitgeverij Het Spectrum; Freiburg: Verlag Herder, 1956. Pp. xix + 291.

By ALBIN R. GILBERT
Wheaton College

WHEN scientific psychology was in its youth, Franz Brentano, the leading exponent of act psychology, insisted that a young science like psychology should devote ample time to phenomenal interpretation before turning to experimental research. But while Brentano directed the reader to his private consciousness for private meanings of phenomena, Husserl, Brentano's disciple, was referring the thinker to "general consciousness" for "essential meanings" of phenomena. Thus phenomenology sprang up, with its quest for the essential meaning of every conceivable mental experience. Philosophers, heeding the principle of methodological parsimony, believe that phenomenology is simply 'glorified abstract thinking,' and that Husserl's "essences" are tantamount to Plato's ideas.

S. Strasser's present volume on emotivity purports to be a phenomenological philosophy, yet amounts to a psychology of personality. Many Anglo-American psychologists will not like it. They are brought up in the tradition of 'rigoristic partitive-experimental research,' the tradition under which, the reviewer suggests, research findings are unlikely to fall into broad meaningful patterns, being undirected by heuristic theory at the out-

set. Such psychologists might shrug off a book like Strasser's with the flippant remark: "Just another product of Continental armchair speculation." Nevertheless there will be other students, eager to break out of provincialism, who will stop to examine seriously this author's approach.

They will notice that the author passes first in review the phenomenological interpretations of other students of emotivity: Max Scheler, Jean-Paul Sartre, Felix Krueger, William Stern, and Philipp Lersch. There is something operational about this procedure. We are shown what meanings of emotivity other students have found independently by intuitive phenomenological vision. Then the author pools these interpretations and arrives at a common core. Thus a "group phenomenological" investigation serves as a point of departure of the study.

The meeting-ground of these students of emotivity is, broadly speaking, the stratigraphic interpretation of personality (*Schichtentheorie*) prevalent in German psychology since the 1930s and also embraced by Strasser. According to this theory, emotivity holds an intermediary position between the "vital" and the "cognitive-volitional" levels of personality. At first the reader is left in the dark as to the meaning of this theory. Later the problems of *Schichtentheorie* are taken up, but the theory itself is not presented in a clear-cut manner. The illustration from Scheler (an advance agent for *Schichtentheorie*), showing how levels of emotivity are detected phenomenologically, is altogether insufficient.

Here, however, is the gist of *Schichtentheorie*. Personality, conceived as a psychophysically neutral being, emerges ontologically in successive levels. First it appears "below," that is to say, at the "vital" level, maintaining the homeostasis of sheer living. Personality then manifests itself on a "higher" plane—the "conative-affective" or "orectic" level. The latter superimposes itself upon the former, tapping its energy. From this in turn evolves finally the "cognitive-volitional" level, normally managing and controlling the "orectic" stratum. But sometimes the orectic level "takes the lead" and dominates cognition and volition. In a stationary way, this generates moods; in a spontaneous,

saltatory way, it engenders *affects* and *passions* (*pathos*) which may captivate or obliterate cognition and volition (*logos*).

STRASSER proceeds with the description of *pre-intentional life*, which is under the predominance of the conative-affective level. His interpretation first reveals *pre-intentional urges* (*Dranghandlungen*) in which man is seen to be groping for unknown need-satisfiers, of which the concomitant emotion is *uneasiness*.

This urge-provoked groping leads to the detection of valences and thus gradually becomes purposeful striving. With most Anglo-American psychologists, this process would be interpreted simply by the operationally denotable trial-and-error process, followed by an 'aha-experience.' To Strasser, the philosopher, the stride from vague groping to conscious striving appears as a transformation from latent meaning to manifest meaning.

From the dynamic urges, provoked within the person, we are taken, rather abruptly, to *emotional reverberations* aroused by man's encounters with the world (*Anmutungserlebnisse*). Things and situations encountered strike man in vastly diverse emotional ways, providing global, diffuse, "cognitive" orientation. One wonders whether this phenomenon might not be related—even phenomenologically—to motivational tendencies embedded in the person.

Intentional life is characterized by the predominance of the cognitive-volitional level. As man moves intentionally through life, *emotions*, or rather *emotional reactions*, are meaningfully created. Hope arises when a prospect of accomplishment opens. Discouragement, resignation, hopelessness are experienced when insurmountable difficulties loom. Timidity is aroused when danger threatens. Aggressiveness is prompted when hindrances are met. In this intentional pursuit either curiosity or boredom may be awakened. The final fulfillment will arouse emotions peculiar to its outcome.

Emotionality or *affection* is brilliantly interpreted by the author as a "capitulation" of *logos* to *pathos*, after the former has tried in vain to cope with a perturbing situation rationally.

Significantly, Strasser's interpretations of emotional predispositions—attitudes

(*Einstellungen*), sentiments (*Gesinnungen*), emotional bearing (*Haltung*), and personal style of life (*Gesamtstil einer Existenz*)—are familiar to Anglo-American psychologists of personality, for all these attitudes can be described or even measured.

In a concluding discussion the author interprets a large realm of pleasurable emotions under the term of happiness (*Glueck*). The phenomenological view reveals them as emotions that transcend the sources from which they stem.

The phenomenological method veers in this section toward an optimistic type of existentialism, more at home in America than in Europe, for the author presents us with a delicate pastel painting of the emotions of happiness. We are told that neither *pleasure* from sensing fulfillment, nor *joy* from "taking possession," nor *enjoyment* from "dwelling in possession" constitutes a peak of felicity. *Serenity*, rather, stemming from an ineffable source, is man's most intimate happiness.

The author admits his inability to account clearly for this assertion, and his admission is understandable, for nobody can rationalistically interpret serenity. Serenity flows from living, living in the presence of the absolute while going about the chores of everyday life. Western psychologists and philosophers could perhaps realize this peak of happiness only by "living in *satori*" (Zen Buddhism), which seems to be a kind of life of which every breath is conditioned by a sense of the absolute.

AFTER reading Strasser's book, Anglo-American psychologists engaged in partitive experimental pursuits may utter the national interjection: "So what?" In response to this it can be seriously said: We sorely need a clarification of the psychological "essences" with which we deal theoretically and experimentally. The phenomenological method as practiced by groups is wholly acceptable to scientific psychology, being operationally denotable. After all, "experimental group phenomenology" in the form of *Gestalt Psychology* is familiar to all of us.

The clarification of "essences" will also be of great heuristic value for the planning of worthwhile experimental research, although Strasser's book and others of its type, unfortunately, fall

short of suggesting research projects that would be guided by phenomenological theories.

Finally, our neo-psychoanalysts, client-centered therapists, and existential therapists should be greatly stimulated by Strasser's study of "happiness." This writer expects them to share his own impression of Strasser's book: it is an inquiry into "essence" that should make for improvement of "existence."

Empiricism Unlimited

Edwin E. Ghiselli

The Measurement of Occupational Aptitude

Berkeley: University of California Press, 1955. Pp. 116. \$1.50.

By DONALD E. SUPER
Teachers College, Columbia University

IN THIS little booklet Ghiselli has attempted to report a distillation of the results of all published studies of the validity of tests for occupational prediction. The literature covered is American, which may be a wise limitation in view of possible cultural differences in occupations, although that limitation is not explicitly made. Ghiselli's method differs from that of Buros in the *Mental Measurements Yearbooks* in that he makes no mention of specific tests, but focuses on types of tests and types of jobs, attempting a synthesis. It differs from the present reviewer's, in that Ghiselli covers all tests and disregards questions of the adequacy of the studies which provided the validity coefficients.

The results of this novel approach, essentially the statistical combination of correlation coefficients by type of test and type of job, are most helpful to the constructors of tests and the vocational appraisers. The figures point up clearly the occupational significance of each type of test, giving the developer of a test battery and the selector of tests for personnel evaluation or for vocational counseling more than vague generalizations to go on.

Interesting findings include a lack of relationship between success in training and success in most jobs, and a lack of

correspondence between existing occupational classifications and an empirical classification based on aptitude patterns. The latter finding is more damaging to the empirical finding than to the existing classifications.

Empathy Is Not Enough

Nelson N. Foote and Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr.

Identity and Interpersonal Competence: A New Direction in Family Research

Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955. Pp. ix + 305. \$5.00.

By HERBERT C. KELMAN
National Institute of Mental Health

THE TASK of the family is to promote the personality development of its members. The task of family research is to discover the conditions which facilitate personality development in a desirable direction—to establish relationships between various family experiences and practices of family agencies, on the one hand, and various outcomes, on the other. Starting with these assumptions, Foote and Cottrell outline some of the basic thinking underlying the family research program at the Family Study Center, University of Chicago.

The bulk of the book is devoted to the development of three interrelated sets of criteria: (1) criteria for evaluating personality development in family members, (2) criteria for evaluating family agencies (and families) in terms of their readiness to undertake deliberate, planned programs designed to enhance personality development, and (3) criteria for evaluating research programs in terms of the likelihood that they will produce results that are generalizable and usable by families and agencies. The desirability of democratic planning in the operations of individuals, agencies, and research programs is the common thread that runs through all three of these sets of criteria.

The authors' central concept for personality development is interpersonal competence. They list six components of interpersonal competence—health, intelligence, empathy, autonomy, judgment, and creativity—all of which are

viewed as capacities needed by the individual for effective handling of his interpersonal relations. An entire chapter is devoted to hypotheses regarding the conditions (reproducible by families and family agencies) that facilitate the development of interpersonal competence and its separate components. Interpersonal competence, they hold, is differentiated from other concepts, especially from "adjustment." The naive and literal conception of adjustment (which is certainly not held by everyone who uses the term) refers to a particular state, whereas competence refers to a capacity or process. The adjusted person is he who accepts the *status quo*, is guided by external controls, and has achieved a state of freedom from conflict and discomfort. The competent person, on the other hand, is he who is capable of coping and growing, of dealing with a changing world, discovering new ends and means, and integrating his goals with those of others.

Implicit in the distinction between the approach presented in this book and what might loosely be called the adjustment approach, it seems to me, is a difference in the respective conceptions of interpersonal relations. The more unsavory version of the adjustment approach views

interpersonal relations essentially in manipulative terms. In its most extreme form, it preaches manipulation of others through manipulation of the self: the secret of success is the ability to figure out what the other person wants and to present yourself in such a way as to meet his expectation. In its less extreme form (a form which is manifested in many social situations in present-day America, ranging from schools to factories), it emphasizes getting along and being a good group member at the expense of identity and self-direction in terms of stable personal values.

For Foote and Cottrell, on the other hand, effectiveness in interpersonal relations implies self-direction and the maintenance and development of identity. Interpersonal competence does not involve a submergence of the self, nor does it mean effective manipulation of others. Essentially, competence and its components refer to the ability to form person-to-person relationships. "Empathy and autonomy," for example, "have to do with the relationships of selves and others, not as objects, but as human subjects with whom each person is engaged in the plots of the human drama" (p. 59). In this approach, then, identity and interpersonal competence are not seen as opposites but are intimately related to each other. "The growth of competence is not separable from the elaboration of identity" (p. 210). A person's identity has meaning only in terms of his relations with significant others. In turn, his interpersonal relations have meaning only when they serve and reflect his identity. The adjustment approach, on the contrary, assumes a conflict between "being yourself" and "getting along with others." The greatest contribution of the present volume, it seems to me, is that it does away with this false dichotomy. In doing so, it has restored autonomy and identity to their rightful places and has put the person back into interpersonal relations—as an agent and not as a means.

The authors have not completely succeeded, however, in defining interpersonal competence as the capacity for true person-to-person relations. Of the six components, the only one that is explicitly a relational concept is empathy. There is no question that empathic ability is a very important aspect of



LEONARD S. COTTRELL, JR. (left) AND
NELSON N. FOOTE

interpersonal competence, but it does not cover the entire range of relational capacities. In an ultimate sense, when a person empathizes he is still treating as objects both the other and the self: the other, because he isolates only a small part of him and takes it over, but does not relate to him as a complete person; the self, because he excludes it from the relationship when he takes on the role of the other. Empathy does not represent, therefore, the kind of full, committed relationship in which two whole persons meet, in the sense of Buber's dialogical or I-Thou relation. The capacity for such relationships does not seem to be included in the definition of interpersonal competence.

What is needed, in short, is some such concept as the capacity to love: the capacity for becoming fully involved with another person (not as an outsider who transposes himself into the other person, as it were, but as an active participant in the relationship), the capacity for assuming responsibility towards another person, and the capacity for sharing experiences in an immediate sense. While only a small proportion of any individual's interpersonal relationships can be of this nature, it would seem that the truly competent person—as the authors themselves envisage him—should be capable of them.

Adding capacity for love to the list of components would, therefore, make for a more complete scheme. And, incidentally, it would have another desirable effect by raising the number of components to seven, a number whose magical properties have influenced the course of history, and even, according to a recent paper (*Psychological Review*, 1956, **63**, 81-97), the course of psychology.

The authors are not unaware of love. Nelson Foote, in fact, wrote an article by that very name (*Psychiatry*, 1953, **16**, 245-251), in which love is discussed as a condition for the development of interpersonal competence. Nowhere, however, is it included as a component of competence. Perhaps the omission is due to the fact that love is a relationship based, in large part, on unconscious, non-rational, and nondeliberate motivations. A general tendency to neglect these aspects of motivation is apparent throughout the book.

This bias against the nonrational also

shows up in the discussion of family agencies. The authors identify psychotherapy and social casework with a static, remedial approach, without discussing the potential contributions of these procedures to the client's continual growth and capacity for dealing with future problems. Conversely, they identify group work and other group approaches with dynamic process and planning orientation, without discussing the many ways in which groups can be used to side-step the planning process. The same bias is also involved in the authors' emphasis on participant experimentation as the only fruitful approach to family research. They stress the importance of mobilizing "the subject's own interest in the accuracy and scope of the results," but seem unaware of the motivational obstacles to his ability and willingness to study himself.

A broader view of motivational processes may, thus, be necessary before the authors can complete their delineation of interpersonal relations as the meeting of subjects, rather than objects. They have taken an extremely important step in the direction of such a formulation by doing away with the dichotomy between selfhood and relationship and by assigning to autonomy and identity a central place in interpersonal competence. They could move even further in this direction, however, by deepening their conception of relationship and including that capacity which is best described by the concept of love.

Opinion's Gross and Scope

M. Brewster Smith, Jerome S. Bruner, and Robert W. White

Opinions and Personality

New York: John Wiley & Sons; London: Chapman & Hall, 1956. Pp. vii + 294. \$6.00.

By MARIE JAHODA
New York University

A SOCIAL scientist recently concluded an exposé of measurement techniques in opinion research by recalling St. Augustine's intellectual turmoil in grappling with the concept of time. Augustine, in despair,



ROBERT W. WHITE

exclaimed: "For so it is, O Lord my God, I measure it; but what it is that I measure I do not know."

To him, but even more to the many who measure opinions without asking themselves what they are doing, I recommend this book. The bulk of the volume consists of case histories, focused on the views about Russia of ten normal adult men. This is easy bedside reading. The rest, though equally readable, may well interfere with sound sleep, for it presents an exciting challenge to customary opinion research.

The purpose of the study reported in the book was to gain new insights into the relation of an attitude to personality as a whole. Ten men from various walks of life were persuaded to volunteer for the study. Each in 15 individual two-hour sessions was subjected to 28 investigating procedures, ranging from the procuring of autobiographical material to focused interviews to projective techniques. The most interesting newcomer among these familiar techniques is a "stress interview," in which three members of the team tried to undermine the previously ascertained views of a subject. Notwithstanding this promising but somewhat formidable technique, one of the book's most appealing features is its pervasive respect for the individual dignity of the subjects and its gentle concern for every manifestation of personality as a potentially important datum for science.

The inevitable result of this multi-pronged approach is the accumulation of a nearly overwhelming amount of data. Wisely, we are presented only with condensations. To distill new understanding from this mass of recorded data must have been a Herculean, perhaps occasionally a Sisyphean task.

The authors start with an eclectic concept of personality that bears traces of Allport's, Lewin's, and Murphy's thought, and somewhat reluctantly takes note of psychoanalytic theory. Opinion or attitude (they use the terms interchangeably) are regarded as a "predisposition to experience, to be motivated by, and to act toward, a class of objects in a predictable manner."

THE NEW insights—new, at least as compared to current opinion research—emerge in the relationship between the two sets of variables. The authors demonstrate that there is no one-to-one relation between opinion and personality dynamics. Two persons may hold similar views on Russia, and, though these views fit into each personality, the two personalities may nevertheless differ radically from each other. That point has been made, of course, in critical discussions of *The Authoritarian Personality* and is well taken. But it does not follow, as the authors realize, that we have to discard all that was learned from the work of Adorno and

colleagues. That the F scale taps a significant personality syndrome, even if this syndrome is compatible with both pro-Russian and anti-Russian attitudes, is beyond doubt.

As an interesting thought rather than as a demonstration from data, the authors suggest that a man's expressed opinions and values can tell one more when it comes to prediction than do projective techniques ("key hole" methods, in the authors' disparaging phrase). In their opinion Rorschachs and TATs consistently tended to underrate a man's capacities, strength, and stability.

In line with this view they query the sufficiency of Freudian defense mechanisms in explaining behavior with regard to opinion-holding, that is to say, their adequacy for ego psychology. A normal adult in defending his opinions goes out of his way to discover factual support for them; he "exercises" them in conversation; he may even deliberately expose them to challenge in order to test their validity. In other words, man can act rationally with regard to his opinions. For all that, the attack against psychoanalytic concepts is somewhat overdone. The list of strategies which the authors isolate in describing how individuals cope with their informational environment is, in part, remarkably similar to some Freudian defense mechanisms. Nevertheless the emphasis on the largely unexplored healthy adaptations of normal people is the strong point of the book. The authors' insights in this respect are related to a daring thought which has recently been expressed: perhaps health and illness should not be regarded as extreme poles of one continuum. For all we know they are qualitatively different states which can exist simultaneously in one person.

The book's challenge to opinion research stems from its analysis of the attributes and functions of opinion, which are not only multi-determined but multi-faceted. Interpretation of opinion measures without regard for the differentiated and idiosyncratic meaning of the opinion's object to a person, or the time-perspective inherent in the opinion, or the subject's informational support, must be grossly misleading. But in this book at least—which intends to put the measurement cart back behind the horse—nothing is further from the minds of the



JEROME S. BRUNER

authors than measurement. They are exclusively concerned with the meaning of opinion. That they have codified various dimensions of an attitude—new and old ones—is an unquestionable achievement. Whether at this point the reader chooses to paraphrase St. Augustine by exclaiming: "For so it is, O Lord my God, now that I know what it is, I do not know how to measure it" will be a function of both his temperament and his view of psychology as a science.



What Is School Psychology?

Eli M. Bower

The School Psychologist

Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1955. Pp. ix + 130.

By DONALD E. SUPER

Teachers College, Columbia University

THIS pamphlet is designed to help school administrators and classroom teachers understand the objectives, methods, and techniques of the school psychologist. The end is sought by briefly describing the kinds of children seen by school psychologists, the methods of diagnosis, and treatment used, and the role of the school psychologist as a collaborator with teachers and parents.



M. BREWSTER SMITH

The psychologist is seen as a specialist in helping people to understand human behavior as well as a specialist in work with problem children.

Thus we are provided with an up-to-date and enlightened picture of the school psychologist. Although at times the author seems to be writing more for fellow psychologists than for teachers and administrators, still, by and large, he has succeeded in keeping his audience in mind. The pamphlet should be useful in the professional orientation of school psychologists. Some school-board members and P.T.A. officials will find it helpful in understanding what a psychologist does. Well-selected case materials help maintain the general reader's interest. The unnecessary use of glazed paper detracts from the pleasure of reading an otherwise excellent publication.

Statistics with a Psychometric Flavor

J. P. Guilford

Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (3rd Ed.)

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956.
Pp. xi + 565. \$6.25.

By JULIAN C. STANLEY
University of Wisconsin

CONTAINING 68 pages less than its 1950 predecessor, though with nearly 5 per cent more characters per line, this third edition of a well-known, measurement-oriented textbook emphasizes descriptive statistics, since Guilford feels that "tests of statistical significance serve an evaluative function rather than a creative one." To the topic of inference he devotes Chapters 9-12, one chapter more than formerly, and he makes additional comments elsewhere. In Chapters 13-18 he treats the statistical aspects of measurement, mainly correlational. The final chapter is no. 19, *Test Scales and Norms*, which was no. 12 in the second edition.

Material added to the section on hypothesis testing and statistical inference includes Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variance, the chi-square procedure for

combining probabilities from independent tests of significance, nonparametric tests, intraclass correlation for the reliability of ratings, and an extension of the basic theory of hypothesis testing. A few new tables, an introduction to the discriminant function, and answers to all computational problems in the exercises complete the main additions. Various topics and the chapter on scaling methods have been deleted.

These important but by no means drastic changes may help the book retain its appeal for instructors desiring a rather verbal, nonderivational approach to elementary statistics, one that stresses correlation. Certainly Guilford offers much information not found in other leading statistics textbooks.

In a brief review criticisms may appear too blunt, but this reviewer feels compelled to say what he considers a rather serious limitation: the 28-page *Introduction to the Analysis of Variance* is all too brief, unclear, and imprecise to be of much value. Nor do we find a word about models (I, II, and mixed) or expected mean squares in the whole book! Statements such as "The 'within-sets' variance is, of course, the denominator of every F ratio" (p. 282) reveal the confusion arising from thinking only of 'fixed' effects. Specification of appropriate expected mean squares would help clarify the discussion of rater-rater effects on pp. 280 f. (a Model II design) and make the "intraclass correlation" illustrated there less mysterious.

Should not "machines" (p. 274) be considered a random effect? And Tukey's 1949 procedure for 'post-mortem' comparisons of individual means in the analysis of variance (p. 264) should be superseded by more recent methods (e.g., *Biometrika*, 1953, 40, 87-104). Also, on pp. 193 f. the old, approximate test of the significance of the difference between r_{12} and r_{13} (based upon the same persons) appears instead of Hotelling's better procedure (*Annals of Mathematical Statistics*, 1940, 11, 271-83).

In fairness to Guilford, we should note that few applied statistics textbooks, as yet, handle the models well.

Guilford's straightforward, simple style can be capitalized upon by the able teacher who prefers to emphasize measurement and whose lectures on statistics supplement the book greatly.

Human Differences Up-Dated

Leona E. Tyler

The Psychology of Human Differences (2nd Ed.)

New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956. Pp. 562. \$6.00.

By D. A. WORCESTER
University of Nebraska

A REVISED edition raises certain questions. Is this necessary? Is it really a revision? Is it an enlargement? Is it merely a rearrangement in order to get attention as a new book?

In this instance we can probably say that it is necessary, although major portions of the book are made up of additional references. There has been a considerable rearrangement also.

There has been a large amount of work on the psychology of human differences since the appearance of the first edition and Dr. Tyler seems to have done a good job in discovering and evaluating this work. As almost nothing had been omitted from the materials cited in the first edition, the new edition is much larger than the original one. One sometimes wonders if revisions should not attempt to see if some new work does not really supplant the older and, therefore, make it possible to comprehend the subject without consulting both. There has been omission in terms of elementary statistical tools and in this respect the new book is much stronger than the old.

If one reads the summaries of the chapters, he will discover that large portions of these summaries are word for word alike, but he will also find several instances where new research has led to definite modifications of positions taken earlier. In general, the changes are in the direction of a lesser degree of surety of conclusions.

The new text is better organized than the earlier one and, in general, has in it less of philosophy and more of fact.

To answer the questions above: It is an enlargement; it is a revision; it is necessary.



CP SPEAKS...

AS GEORGE MILLER remarked in the August issue of *CP*, if enough monkeys could be got to operate each his own typewriter at random (monkeying is random, isn't it?), one of them would eventually produce the complete works of Shakespeare. One of them should; but, says Miller quoting Norbert Wiener, who would ever know it? Not the monkey. Only some Methuselah who had devoted his miraculously long life to examining, sorting, assessing, and comparing what the monkeys had done. Stochastic monkeying is not the efficient way to get Shakespeare written. Much better to employ Shakespeare.

It would be no different, said Wiener, if you had a giant laboratory with 50,000 scientists in it all doing research, each of them filing a report every week on what he had discovered during the week—2,500,000 hebdomadal reports per annum. Does the information in these reports then exist? In a sense, yes; it is *there* in the reports. In a not dissimilar sense, it was *there*, hidden in nature, before the scientists extracted it. Now some of what was hidden in nature has moved on to be hidden in the reports. A second-order selector-communicator has become essential, and after him there must be many others. First nature. Then research. Then the article to interpret the research. Then the book or survey that selects among the articles and interprets them. Later the handbooks and textbooks for those more hardy facts that have stood up long enough to gain eventual admission to science's common domain.

What we want, Miller and *CP* both think, is more Shakespeares and fewer monkeys, more wisdom and less Baconian amassing of unrelated facts, facts got together in the blind faith that, given enough data, the magic of an unaided induction is somehow bound eventually to unmask nature's uniformities. Miller has no solution for this problem, but he believes that more books and perhaps fewer articles would be a step in the right direction, since the wisdom that goes

beyond the facts is more likely to be found in the books than in the articles. *CP*, whose mission it is to reveal the importance of books, goes along with Miller in his wish for more wise ones. Wise books in psychology advance the scientific process by ferreting out what is significant in the articles and by creating new ideas in which thitherto unrelated facts acquire new meaning in union.

Now does not everyone desire just exactly this? Yes, if they can have it for free, but not if they must give up something more valuable to them. So many of those who write letters to *CP* want the monkeys too. They still believe that Francis Bacon's masses of data, waiting patiently for induction to operate upon them, will somehow generate the uniformities of nature without a wise inductor in charge.

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Psychologists worry over what they think is *CP*'s monopoly of reviews. If they must have all their reviews in one journal instead of four, then they'd like more double and triple reviews of the same book than *CP* has known how to manage. Double reviews are not so easy to arrange. Unless two reviewers with contrasting attitudes can be guaranteed in advance to differ with each other, the two reviews become repetitious and each reviewer gets only half the glory, when glory is all the pay he gets anyhow—glory, catharsis, and the fun of exercising a skill.

Other readers ask that *CP* publish an index of the reviews of psychological books in other journals. *CP* promised to look into this matter and its look produced exactly what it was looking for: the *Mental Health Book Review Index* for psychology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis. The selection and editing is done by a Subcommittee on Book Appraisal of the Adult Education Board of the American Library Association, and *CP* knows the job is well done because *CP* knows some of the people who do the work. The *Index* comes out twice a year

and the first number appeared last January. The Committee has a list of fifty journals and it indexes the reviews of any book in this field that has been reviewed in three or more of these fifty journals. There were 235 books listed in the first year (two numbers). They averaged about four reviews apiece, 924 reviews indexed altogether.

So *CP* notes with relief that it has no monopoly of reviewing of psychological books. *CP*'s role in this large group of journals is small and modest. The complaints have come from those who do not know what goes on outside the APA. It is also plain that *CP* is in no position to compete qualitatively with this excellent undertaking, that there is no need for two indexes anyhow, that *CP* would not now have space for anything so extensive. The best *CP* can do is to fix it so that the worried psychologists can get this guide and use it.

The *Index* is a supplement to the *Psychological Newsletter*, edited by Dr. M. E. Tresselt, Psychology Department, New York University, Washington Square, New York 3, N. Y. Send them fifty cents for a number, or the more easily mailed dollar for the year (two numbers). If you are really anxious to read different reviews of the books that interest you, this is the way to do it.

The Committee is anxious to have libraries know that they can get this *Index* free by writing for it. If you are a library, write, requesting a copy of the *Mental Health Book Review Index*, to Miss Lois Afflerbach, Paul Klapper Library, Queens College, New York 67, N. Y., and spend your dollar instead on a paperback psychological book for yourself, probably one that Calvin Hall recommends.

»»» <<<

Early in 1957 Wiley will put out a *Manual for Role Playing in Executive Development* by Norman Maier, his wife, and Allen R. Solem. They have been working on the book since 1950 and they feel that they have something new to say about how to develop leadership in discussion groups without the leader's prejudicing the course of the discussion or the way it ends up. It sounds like a kind of participant-centered technic, but it is all very complicated and you had better wait for exact information.

—E.G.B.

The Child Analyzed and Uncontrolled

Ruth S. Eissler, Anna Freud, Heinz Hartmann and Ernest Kris (Eds.)

The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child. Vol. X

New York: International Universities Press, 1955. Pp. 394. \$7.50.

By JACOB L. GEWIRTZ
The University of Chicago

THIS is the tenth annual volume of a series in which important advances in recent psychoanalytic thinking have appeared. Like the earlier volumes it is a collection of papers of uneven quality, on a diversity of topics within the framework of psychoanalytic thought. Well-known contributors to earlier volumes in the series who are again represented are Hartmann, E. Kris, Burlingham, Greenacre, Mittelmann, and Spitz.

For convenience the 19 contributions to this volume may be classed under three overlapping headings: those which are conceptual-systematic in nature, those which attempt to clarify the etiologies of particular problem syndromes (e.g., psychoses, aggression, fetishism, asthma, dermatological diseases), and those which deal with the techniques and experiences of child therapy. Many of the papers include rather detailed case histories, several are based in part upon the direct observation of child behavior during the earliest years (e.g., in play), while a few attempt to reconstruct early child behavior patterns from the analyses of adults.

In the terms of the criteria psychoanalysts employ, there is little question that some of the conceptual papers of this volume (notably one by Hartmann and one by Kris on sublimation as the neutralization of energy) extend psychoanalytic concepts and make them more incisive. Useful though such contributions may be to the psychologist of personality, they leave much to be desired when examined in terms of the requirements of scientific method. Of course, this criticism would apply to much of current psychoanalytic writing since, due to the looseness of the over-all theoretical framework, internal

consistency is a criterion which cannot be met readily. And, even where a theoretical contribution is more tightly reasoned, it is frequently difficult for the reader to determine the nature of the observable behaviors implied.

Heretofore analysts have advanced much theory but few data on early childhood behavior. The trend of this series of annuals has been to include studies of young children which have employed what is, for analysts, systematic observation techniques, with less emphasis placed upon the adult's reconstruction of events in his early life and upon descriptions of infants' emotional life as seen through adult empathy. This volume continues this trend, though perhaps to a lesser degree. It is encouraging that studies such as those of Kris and Spitz are represented, even though they are not based on highly controlled observations. Their importance may lie as much in the direction they give to the systematic observation of children by psychoanalysts as in the conceptual contributions they may represent. While such studies indicate a constructive trend, however, the methods of observation leave much to be desired if they are to be taken as more than sources of hypotheses or intuitive first tests of hypotheses.

EVEN when clinical contributions based on the single case or on a number of cases are plausible, still there needs to be some consideration of alternative hypotheses or an account of the negative case. In this symposium there seldom is. An example in point occurs with one of the better papers, by Jessner and her associates, on the effect of separation of the asthmatic child from his mother. It is one of the few papers based on more than one case, for its observations were drawn from 65 asthmatic children and their mothers, of whom 28 were selected (on a basis not mentioned) for intensive study by the authors. Among the loosely worded generalizations reached there is included no reference to a negative case.

One wonders how much more powerful this volume might be were some missionary to carry to the psychoanalytic community the simple evangel of the contingency table.

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The New Tranquilizers

Nathan S. Kline (Ed.)

Psychopharmacology (Proceedings of a Symposium sponsored jointly by the Section on Medical Sciences of the AAAS and the American Psychiatric Association, Berkeley, 30 December 1954.)

Washington, D. C.: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1956. Pp. 165. \$3.50 (\$3.00 to AAAS members).

By CLIFFORD T. MORGAN
The Johns Hopkins University

THE TIME may not be far off when the term *Psychopharmacology* can be used appropriately for a book title. This book, however, is concerned almost exclusively with the new tranquilizing drugs. It consists of ten chapters, each a paper in a symposium presented at the Berkeley meeting of the AAAS, Christmas, 1954. One brief chapter concerns lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD), the psychosis-mimicking drug; another considers the antagonism of chlorpromazine and mescaline; and two others discuss the pharmacology and site of action of the tranquilizing drugs in the central nervous system. The other six chapters, which comprise the bulk of the book, are clinical reports of the use of the tranquilizing drugs in the psychiatric treatment of neurotic and psychotic patients.

It is these six chapters that will interest the psychologist who is following the newest fad in psychiatric treatment. Four of the reports are based on relatively large numbers of patients and are enthusiastic about the efficacy of the new drugs. In none of these studies, however, was appropriate control used, and the enumeration of the number of patients "markedly improved," slightly "improved," and "not improved" leaves one wondering what the spontaneous rate of improvement would have been. One doctor, reporting a similar, uncontrolled study, was not at all impressed with the value of the drugs. The sixth study, unlike the others, was a "double-blind" study—it used control groups. In general, drug-treated groups were more improved than groups receiving placebos, but the

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number of cases, unfortunately, was small, and the results are of doubtful significance.

Throughout the papers and discussion, the tranquilizing drugs were frequently characterized as "innocuous" and having few "side effects." At other places, however, mention was made of convulsions, Parkinsonism, jaundice, turbulence, and suicidal tendencies produced by the drugs. There was also considerable disagreement about whether the drugs were most beneficial with schizophrenics, manics, or neurotics. The most agreement was evoked by the proposition that the drugs are sedatives that usually allay anxiety without disturbing intellectual functions in the way that old-fashioned sedatives do.

This reviewer's appraisal of the studies and claims reported in the book is well expressed in the words (p. 130) of one of the discussants: "I recall a meeting . . . less than 20 years ago when insulin and electric shock were discussed at great length. The statistics that were reported, the enthusiasm—everything was an exact duplicate of what we heard today. Yet now . . . none of us is nearly as enthusiastic [about these therapies] as we were then. . . . These comments are not made to minimize the therapeutic effects that one gets from these drugs . . . but the proof of the pudding is going to be about five or ten years from now."

To Walk in Darkness

William L. Moore

The Mind in Chains

New York: Exposition Press, 1955.
Pp. 315. \$3.50.

By MILTON WEXLER
Beverly Hills, California

THIS BOOK is subtitled *The Autobiography of a Schizophrenic*. There is some injustice in this description since the author set out to establish that he was never 'insane' and perhaps not even mentally ill. What he succeeds in establishing is that mental illness is terribly misunderstood and badly mistreated even in some of our better hospitals. As a case history the book does not arouse the same clinical interest and speculative excitement that

come with a reading of Schreber's *Memoirs*, or the autobiography written by Sechehaye's patient, or comparable documents by Beers, Custance, and others; but as a very human and moving statement of a young man's struggle to maintain personal integrity and dignity in the face of a practical, well-meaning, but uncomprehending world, will touch deeply every reader.

It is difficult to say whether Mr. Moore succeeds better in demonstrating that the ideas and beliefs of non-inmates of mental institutions are just as irrational as his own, or that he is entitled to maintain his own irrational beliefs without undue interference by authority, however well intentioned. Certainly he presents a dramatic and often frightening picture of what it means to someone who has lost his way in the world to be suddenly confronted by the loving therapeutic zeal involved in hospitalization, electric shock, insulin convulsions, and medical logic. The reader, whether professional or otherwise, is bound to experience that compassion and uneasiness which comes with sharing intimately in the life-and-death struggle which is psychosis.

A Novel Elementary Text on Statistics

Joe Kennedy Adams

Basic Statistical Concepts

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955.
Pp. xvi + 304. \$5.50.

By LINCOLN E. MOSES
Stanford University

THIS IS a most unusual elementary statistics book. Its special character arises principally from the role played by mathematics in the text. On page 4 a population, or universe, is defined as "a value function, that is, a class of ordered pairs such that the second member of each pair is a member of a set and the first member of the pair is the value of that member of the set." On page 27 it is recommended to the student that he prove a certain proposition by mathematical induction. On page 86 the student's introduction to differentiation begins. The integral calculus occupies pages 90 to 95. This section is immediately followed by a chapter on

the normal distribution, the text of which is replete with definite integrals.

THE AUTHOR's reasons for preferring to write a book of this kind are appealing. He points out in the preface that most of the time spent in teaching calculus courses is devoted to *techniques* of differentiation and integration, from which it would follow that the concepts themselves are by no means a year's work. He states, "Any student who has the intelligence necessary to understand the subtle concepts of statistical inference can certainly understand those of elementary calculus." The reviewer is inclined to agree with this principle—and to prefer elementary texts in statistics that permit the elementary calculus to appear at most in occasional footnotes. That it is *possible* for a good statistics student to grasp the concepts of calculus is in itself no reason at all for including it in the text. The integral is of critical conceptual aid in dealing with probabilities and moments for continuous random variables. Rather than introduce differential and integral calculus one can demonstrate the notions by appealing to areas and approximating sums (which after all is the actual method of integration necessarily used in a large fraction of statistical mathematics). Some teachers will prefer this approach to the one adopted in this book. In any case, the poor or average student—who cannot be ignored where a text is used in a required course—will presumably learn more statistics if his progress is not dependent on his ability to attach the correct meaning to a definite integral. There is a serious question whether a student can learn to evaluate normal probabilities from this book unless he has succeeded in interpreting definite integrals.

So far as statistical inference is concerned, the core of the book is its third chapter. Here an ingenious case is studied in much detail in order to exhibit the notions of *significance test*, *confidence interval*, *power* and its dependence upon both *sample size* and *level of confidence*. The device is the following. A bowl contains four chips, each either black or orange. Four hypotheses (H_0 : number of orange chips is zero, H_1 : number of orange chips is one, etc.) are set up. N drawings with replacement are allowed.



JOE KENNEDY ADAMS

This material appears early in the book—long before continuous random variables and the antecedent calculus; it has strong intuitive appeal connecting in a real way the various possible states of nature and the associated sampling distributions. It may offend the taste of some statisticians to find the term *level of confidence* used both for tests of significance and for confidence intervals; it appears unfortunate that the .02 level of confidence denotes either a significance level of .02, or what is usually called a confidence coefficient of .98. Despite the intuitive nature and general correctness of the third chapter, it is likely that some students (and some teachers) may acquire the notion that it is possible to have a confidence-interval method which for some sample outcomes provides covering for none of the states of nature (or parameter values) under consideration.

Although errors of the first and second kind are introduced early (Ch. III), and so also the power function, little use of these notions is ever made again—as in choosing adequate sample sizes. This reviewer also regrets the use of the term *expected value of x* to refer to either the sample mean or the population mean, depending on the context. No substantive errors arise from this usage in the book, but the saving in formulas which this definition provides seems poor recompense for the shame of aggravated assault on the phrase “expected value.”

The book is correct from a theoretical standpoint. There are, however, some oversights and omissions. They include: ignoring natural order among categories in χ^2 problems; failure to give Fisher's exact treatment of 2×2 contingency tables (although matters of greater al-

gebraic difficulty are included at length); failure to offer the continuity correction in 2×2 contingency tables; no comment on necessary sample sizes for standard error test of equality of binomial probabilities; recommending expected frequencies of at least 5 (or at least 10 if degrees of freedom are less than 5) before using χ^2 . This latter advice appears quite conservative in the light of recent literature.

The exercises are one of the book's strongest points. Some of them are quite difficult; many are indeed very nice. It is good to see the student urged repeatedly to define the population in hand, or to discuss the matter of random sampling in a problem. One can recommend that a teacher buy the book because it provides so many good exercises.

Learning Theory Goes Experimental

Ernest R. Hilgard

Theories of Learning. (2nd Ed.)

New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1956. Pp. vii + 563. \$5.50.

By W. K. ESTES

Indiana University

WHAT is learning theory? Simply the old ‘schools of psychology’ with a few modernistic trimmings? An essentially new discipline representing the conceptual fruits of experimental research? Hilgard's judicious and scholarly survey of the field settles upon no one answer, but it does assemble the material evidence. Despite the author's avowedly historical orientation, a full third of the works cited in his 1948 edition were published in 1940 or later and less than a fifth were dated earlier than 1930; by 1956 these proportions had diverged to nearly two-thirds and less than a seventh, respectively. Also instructive is a breakdown of the works cited according to type; more than forty per cent of those in the first edition and exactly half of those in the second are primarily experimental studies. Whatever else can be said about the material currently passing for learning theory, it is neither antiquarian nor predominantly philosophical.

It is even clearer in the new book than the old that the “theories of learning” are by no means all of similar status. The collection can be fractionated into three reasonably well-defined subgroups:

(1) *Historically important influences on learning theory.* Here I would place Thorndike, Lewin, and ‘classical gestalt.’ These are the only chapters which came through the revision without major alterations or additions.

(2) *Currently important influences.* These range from such familiar hall-of-fame incumbents as Freud, Woodworth, and Tolman to such impersonal hypermodern developments as game theory, cybernetics, and information theory. Some will object to my classification of Tolman as an influence rather than a theory, but Hilgard tacitly agrees—“While Tolman has made very thoughtful observations on learning, and has been responsible for much original experimentation, he has not proposed a system clearly enough defined so that successive approximations succeeded in making it more exact and testable.”

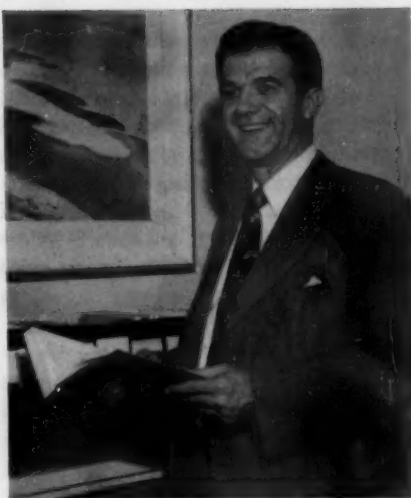
(3) *Currently active theories.* Of those treated in Hilgard's first edition, at most three have undergone sufficient continued growth to qualify for the same category in 1956. Guthrie's associationism has been promoted from its previous marginal status to that of “serious contender among contemporary theories,” not because Guthrie has continued to develop his views, but because younger psychologists are showing increased interest in formalizing and testing them. Author and reviewer seem agreed that the numerous modifications which Skinner's pigeons have imposed upon his reinforcement theory more clearly represent progress than do the obscurely motivated 1949 revisions of Hull's postulate system. In any event, all those who try to keep track of the field will be grateful for Hilgard's lucid summaries of both developments, and I should think few will cavil at his criticisms of Skinner's anti-theory plank and Hull's “particularism.” New lines of theoretical activity represented in this edition include the formalization of expectancy theory (which turns out to be reinforcement theory plus an inference postulate), limited theories of reinforcement and discrimination, and probabilistic learning theories.

On the whole, the changes in organization of material from the old to the new edition seem primarily to reflect beginning shifts of emphasis from personalities to problems and from systems to theory.

THE 'new Hilgard' not only brings the roster of theorists up to date but also treats in some detail a number of postwar trends which cut across traditional chapter headings. An intuitive factor analysis of theoretical positions now yields *S-R-vs.-cognitive* theory as the principal component, replacing the older *association-vs.-field* axis. At the same time a premature obituary of 1948, "It may be that the stimulus-response language has outlived its usefulness," has given way to a constructive elucidation of the distinction between *substantive* and *functional* S-R positions. The former, a perennial focal point of controversy, would limit psychological theory to concepts definable in S-R terms. The latter seeks only to provide a final common link between theories and facts by requiring psychological theories to yield testable statements of relationship among observable S and R variables.

A development that I would like to see in the next edition is a parallel distinction between substantive and functional types of cognitive theory. The functional category would provide for those of us who are willing to go along with Hilgard's concluding admonitions toward broadening the empirical scope of learning theory but who rebel at some conceptual riders which seem to threaten our hard-won objectivism. It can hardly be doubted that terms in which Hilgard couches his prescriptions for progress—terms having to do with achievement of perceptual goals, strivings for positive incentives, "the genuine reconstruction of experience"—serve to identify important problems in psychology, just as those referring to nature's distaste for vacuums or her persistent efforts to evolve a man have done in physics and biology. But must these terms with their rich connotative overlay *always* overflow their limited sphere of usefulness and clog the works of theory construction?

Transfer of training appears to be as hard to achieve in science as in education. Each discipline insists upon learning



ERNEST R. HILGARD

for itself that descriptions which depend upon the observer's projecting himself into the phenomena are not the stuff of which theories are built. Since I am convinced that mastery of this lesson is a prerequisite to theoretical advance in psychology, it is my hope that so wise a text as Hilgard's can be enlisted in the teaching of it.



Les expériences psychologiques dans la France

Paul Fraisse

Manuel pratique de psychologie expérimentale

Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1956. Pp. xi + 312. 1200 fr.

By HAROLD SCHLOSBERG
Brown University

IF THIS lab manual were translated into English, and a few gadgets of American manufacture substituted for French ones, it might well be the best one available since Munn's (1938). It includes sixty experiments, which cover the traditional subject-matter of experimental psychology as seen in Woodworth's book (1938), with the addition of eleven in the areas of personality and social psychology, but no rats! In addition to the old reliable experiments there

are some less familiar ones, as Michotte's perception of causality, Köhler's figural aftereffects and Leavitt's communication patterns. The basic directions are for a trio: *E*, *S*, and a scribe. The equipment varies from simple to complex with some of it very ingenious. There are suggestions for adapting the experiments for simpler apparatus or for group use.

There are fairly good plates for most of the equipment, and the manufacturers are listed. An appendix on psychophysical methods is one of the clearest available. There is a long (39 pages) introduction which defends the experimental method in psychology; it is probably even more necessary for French students than it is for American. The references lean heavily on a few familiar books that have been translated into French and issued as part of the series that includes this manual—Woodworth's *Experimental* (1938), Andrews' *Methods* (1948), Krech and Crutchfield's *Social* (1948), and a few others. The manual does not, however, neglect *Nouveau traité de psychologie* (1930–1948) and the periodical literature, both in French and English. Some of the experiments were contributed by the author's associates at the Sorbonne, (especially Durup and Montmollin), some were taken from American sources, and others had been in use for many years.

It would be interesting to compare this manual with a modern American one, but there does not seem to be one to compare it with! At least, your reviewer has seen no well-written and fairly complete manual published in many years. There have been workbooks to accompany specific elementary texts, and a few combination text-manuals in experimental psychology, but publishers seem to have learned from bitter experience that American experimentalists are so highly individualistic a bunch that each one insists on selecting his own experiments and mimeographing his own appropriate directions. This tendency for self-sufficiency has its advantages, but there is also something to be said for maintaining a relatively uniform content in the first course in experimental psychology. At any rate, it is gratifying to see that a really good manual has been published in France, for it suggests that this important area of psychology is on the up-grade there.

Five Attitudes Toward Clients

Roy Waldo Miner (Ed.)

Psychotherapy and Counseling
(Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, Vol. 63, Art. 3, 319-432.)

New York: New York Academy of Sciences, 1955. [114 pp.] \$3.50.

By NICHOLAS HOBBS
Peabody College

THIRTY-SIX physicians, psychologists, social workers, counselors, and clergymen present, in expected if precious pecking order, their answers to seven questions about their professional roles in psychotherapy and counseling. The questions have to do with kinds of clients served, methods used, circumstances of interprofessional collaboration, selection and training of students, professional ethics, and evaluation of professional competence. In each instance there is a statement prepared by a single author in collaboration with members of a commission, followed by commentaries from some of the commission members. Unfortunately, the commissions, in spite of their stylish enthusiasm for interdisciplinary effort, seem to have worked more or less independently. There is no evidence that they exchanged papers, and one misses the sharpening of issues that might have ensued. The absence of crisscrossing commentary is not compensated for by Lawrence Frank's brief and optimistic summary.

In making sense of their respective roles, social workers and psychologists show themselves to be members of highly self-conscious professions. They have thought extensively and productively about their functions and responsibilities and appear to have tested their thinking in frequent prior discussions. The physicians are conciliatory but unconvincing in their analysis. They are comfortable with role contradictions that should bother them more. They seem little accustomed to self-examination. There is an assurance that most likely comes from a lack of awareness of the issues involved. The counselors and clergymen, on the other hand, set clear limits for their tasks and do a nice job.

The only group that faces up to the challenge of the title of the book is the commission on counseling and guidance. This group attacks the problem of definition frontally and makes a distinctive contribution which recognizes the overlap between psychotherapy and counseling without obscuring the differences. Their definition could become a standard reference when there is need for a knowledgeable analysis of the two terms.

Assumptions regarding the nature of professional responsibility thread through the papers and point up differences among each of the professions *vis-à-vis* both their clients and other professions. The physicians carefully characterize the patient as an active participant in psychotherapy and banish such offensive words as *ancillary* in describing other professions. At the same time they reaffirm the curious doctrine of medical responsibility. That there may be a difference between responsibility in surgery and in psychotherapy does not seem to bother the participants in the present discussions. The social workers stress the independence of the client and take a pragmatic view of relationships with other professions as entailing supervision, collaboration, or consultation according to the setting in which the work is done. The psychologists share the social workers' concept of the independence of the client but disclaim for themselves as well as reject for other professions the notion of transcendent responsibility for the psychological welfare of others. The counselors do not bother themselves directly with the problem of responsibility; but special authority comes back in the statement of the clergymen, because "...first, last, and always, he represents the church and religion in the eyes of his counselee."

PSYCHOLOGISTS, including those who view clinicians with alarm, can be proud of the statement of the commission made up of Nevitt Sanford, Peter Blos, Harry Bone, Arthur Combs, George Klein, and Rollo May. Their presentation is thoughtful, thorough, literate, and forthright. Among all the groups, they are appropriately most concerned about our need for new knowledge about psychotherapy and counseling.

On the Behavior of Leaders

Ralph M. Stogdill and Carroll L. Shartle

Methods in the Study of Administrative Leadership

Ralph M. Stogdill, Carroll L. Shartle and Associates

Patterns of Administrative Performance

Columbus: Ohio State University, 1956. Pp. xv + 77; xix + 108. \$2.00 each.

By LEWIS B. WARD
Educational Testing Service

BUSINESS management has come a long way since the days of Frederick Taylor and the efficiency expert. Looking back it seems only natural that managers have finally themselves become the objects of methods that had their origin with Taylor and his associates. Although the authors make a pointed distinction between the methods of the Ohio State Leadership Studies and those of time-and-motion study, their approach to administrative leadership through determining amount of time spent in various activities seems clearly a part of the same stream of development.

The appearance of these two books by Stogdill and Shartle will be welcomed by industrial psychologists everywhere. As reports of a ten-year program of research on administrative leadership, they come as milestones in this course of progress. In the *Methods* monograph the authors outline methodology and present some normative and statistical information. In *Patterns* they report four studies illustrating application of the methods to "the problems of determining relationships between administrative performance and the types of positions occupied by administrators." Because "one of the primary aims of the research was the development of methodology," the publication of descriptions of methods is, in a sense, the final step in achieving this primary aim.

Very briefly put, administrative leadership was studied by asking persons with status as leaders in military and business organizations to indicate the proportionate amounts of time they spent in

activities such as "reading and answering mail," "attending conferences," "reflection," etc. Organizations were studied by interviews with members, examination of organization charts, and reports of individuals as to time spent with others inside and outside the organization. Also obtained were self-descriptions, rated on scales representing differing degrees of responsibility, authority, and delegation, and on the answers to a descriptive questionnaire on the behavior of leaders. These procedures yielded estimates by individuals of their own behavior and some information about the behavior of others—e.g., subordinates' mentions of superiors as work partners and descriptions of leader-behavior by subordinates. The results summarized in these two monographs amply demonstrate there are differences between individuals, jobs, and organizations in the patterns of answers to the various instruments developed.

COMPARISONS between business and industrial organizations reported in the *Patterns* monograph raise a rather fundamental question of research design. The authors point out in their discussion that, since complete samples of leaders were not obtained, comparisons of scores for "level in the organization" are not very significant. Because so many of the variables studied are related to level and type of job, the question might be raised: "How can any comparisons be made between organizations under such circumstances?" The presence of this sampling doubt is frustrating in the face of temptation to find significance in differences found between naval and business organizations. The greater time spent by Navy officers in "answering mail" and "reading reports," and their relative isolation as represented by lower Navy scores for "consulting outsiders," fit a priori notions of these matters so very well.

Comparisons between positions within Navy organizations, however, should not suffer from the above source of error, and they show some interesting relationships. For example, engineering and supply officers apparently spend more time on supervision than do other officers. Why should those whose bailiwick is *things* spend the most time supervising

people? Or again, personnel officers and procedure makers check items indicating a higher degree of authority than any other officers, not excluding commanding officers. Perhaps some light may be thrown upon this latter paradox by the thought that at some level near the middle of an organization authority becomes manifest, or is expressed in action, while above this level it is latent and is expressed only under special circumstances. Under this view, the authority scale must represent mainly the expression of authority.

Part IV of the second monograph, *A Factorial Study of Administrative Performance*, by Stogdill, Wherry, and Jaynes, seems to the reviewer to be by far the most important contribution reported in both these volumes. The fact that the major part of the variance on 46 variables, studied across more than 100 "specialty-by-type-of-organization" positions, was accounted for by only eight factors is of fundamental importance for future research on selection of personnel for such positions. Many observers had almost given up hope of finding common aspects in different administrative positions. Among businessmen, for example, a commonly held view is that each executive position is unique. The results reported here should do much to encourage the collection of further data so as better to define the significant dimensions of administrative and managerial jobs. Only in this way is it likely that prediction of individual performance can be made in sufficiently homogeneous groups to yield meaningful validations.



When Marriage Fails

William J. Goode

After Divorce

Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956. Pp. xv + 381. \$6.00.

By CLIFFORD R. ADAMS
Pennsylvania State University

SINCE divorce signifies the bankruptcy of marriage and the end of love (if it ever existed), it would be thought that postdivorce readjustment would have been carefully studied. But

what happens to people who get divorces has not been too frequently treated in fiction, much less by scientists. This may simply mean that romance, whether budding or in full bloom, is more intriguing than the drabness and desolation of a dead love.

Among the few writers and students who have discussed divorce and, to some extent, what follows it are Lightenberger (*Divorce*, 1931), Waller (*The Old Love and the New*, 1939), Cahen (*A Statistical Analysis of American Divorce*, 1932), and, more recently and particularly, Bergler (*Divorce Won't Help*, 1948). It was probably this dearth of information that led Goode, a sociologist, to make (with some financial assistance from the *Saturday Evening Post*) the "first field survey of postdivorce adjustment problems carried out in this country." For Goode, this adjustment process is one through which "a disruption of role sets and patterns, and of existing social relations, is incorporated into the individual's life pattern, such that the roles accepted and assigned do not take the prior divorce into account as the primary point of reference."

In 1948, 425 divorced urban mothers in Detroit, aged 20 to 38 years at the time of divorce, were interviewed. The interview schedule consisted of 120 questions. The length of time between divorce and interview ranged from a few days to several years. The author makes many tabulations and comparisons of these varied data, but in many cases it is impossible to estimate the significance of the differences because of the lack of probable errors and critical ratios.

The most serious shortcoming of the book is that it is not really a comprehensive study of the psychological aspects of postdivorce adjustment. Divorce is viewed as one mechanism to which persons can turn in their effort to escape the pressures of an institutionalized family system, but the degree to which this escape is successful as a long-term tension-reducer, or as an effective adjustment mechanism, cannot be determined from Goode's data. In general, the interval between divorce and interview was too short to make long-range generalizations possible. Within the reach of the data, no one can deny the conscientious thoroughness with which the author has summarized and interpreted his findings

and made certain speculations about them.

As would be expected, the longer the duration of the marriage, the greater the trauma. The severity of trauma also seemed associated with number of children, financial distress, disapproval of friends and relatives, positive feeling toward husband, and unhappy attitude toward husband's remarrying. Although the structure of kinship provides neither privileges nor stigmata for the divorced mother, the conclusion is that a high divorce rate does not imperil the stability of society since it will be accompanied by a high rate of remarriage.

Goode questions the widely held opinion (and findings of early studies) that remarriages are unhappier and less likely to succeed than first marriages. Unfortunately, the average duration of the remarriages studied has been too short for any generalizations to be made about their final outcome. There remains unanswered the most pertinent question: would the chances of personal adjustment and happiness have been greater if honest effort toward making the first marriage work had been tried instead of the resort to divorce and risky remarriage?

Norwegians Through a Glass Darkly

David Rodnick

The Norwegians: A Study in National Culture

Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1955. Pp. 165. \$3.25.

By AASE GRUDA SKARD
University of Oslo, Norway

IT IS with some embarrassment that a Norwegian reads this analysis of his own culture, for the author's account is open to serious criticism—criticism of his methods of research, of his selection of informants and other sources of information, and of his procedures in observation and interview.

Dr. Rodnick says that he visited 30 Norwegian farms and 34 cities, towns, and district centers, that he interviewed more than 500 adults and talked with or observed more than 1700 children and

young people, but he does not say which places and what persons. Nor does he give us any information about what principles he followed in selecting his informants or the institutions he visited. His selection seems to have been essentially haphazard as he stumbled upon this place and that person while he was traveling and living in Norway. He needed, for instance, to distinguish between reliable and unreliable informants, but to make that distinction would have required cross-control of information and a very considerable background knowledge of the facts and history of Norwegian life. Dr. Rodnick simply makes his statements to be taken at their face value. He gives no proofs nor weighs the evidence, and occasionally his quotation suggests that an informant must either have been quite atypical or else have been trying to fool a credulous foreigner. Nearly all his information, moreover, comes from informants; rarely does he refer to written material, except once in a while to a few newspaper clippings. There are, of course, many relevant books that Dr. Rodnick might have read.

Dr. Rodnick quotes group discussions without telling us about the size and constitution of the group. Nor does he often tell us the subject of the conversation nor how he got the conversation started. He does not even say in what language the discussions were conducted, whether in English or Norwegian, nor how competent the interviewer and the interviewees were in the language used.

Besides, one wants more exact quantitative facts. How often was a particular school (or class, or playground, or home) visited? For how long each time? How large is "a group," "a discussion group"? How many are "a large number," "most of the girls"? The scientific atmosphere is missing in this account.

The book makes it appear that the topics discussed were selected in accordance more with the interests of the observer than with the interests of the observed. Dr. Rodnick is blind to some of the outstanding Norwegian concerns, like sports and problems of language, and too much occupied with others, like communism. Nor has he grasped how Norwegian attitudes have differed at different times: the Norwegian attitude toward communism was one thing in the years

1917–1925, quite different in 1941–1945, and then changed again after 1948.

All these selective biases add up to a description of Norwegian culture very surprising to a Norwegian. Dr. Rodnick's observations are occasionally keen and to the point, his conclusions are sometimes pertinent and thought-provoking; but just as frequently his conceptions appear as preposterous, shaped, as they are, by his own preoccupations, his inadequacy with the Norwegian language and his too ready acceptance of the personal opinions and assertions of others. This is an interesting book because it is, in a sense, 'gossipy,' but gossip is not scholarship. There are good methods available, methods which Dr. Rodnick could have employed. So it is that we know more about Trobriands and the Arapesh than this study gives us about the Norwegians. We need something better!

Growing Up at Merrill-Palmer

Leland H. Stott

The Longitudinal Study of Individual Development

Detroit: The Merrill-Palmer School, 1955. Pp. x + 115. \$2.75.

By LOIS MEEK STOLZ
Stanford University

THIS BOOK is a direct product of the teaching of child development to students at the Merrill-Palmer School. It is primarily designed to serve as a background and guide to the study of an individual child where developmental records are available and child and family are accessible for firsthand observation.

Nevertheless, the material it contains will also be useful in the teaching of child development and in observational study of a child, even when longitudinal records are not available. The section (Part II) which discusses various aspects of development is well organized in a concise form. There is perhaps too great a dependence upon sources from Merrill-Palmer School and at times upon secondary sources rather than original research.

Normative data are given on a variety of developmental behaviors which have

been assembled at Merrill-Palmer over the years and which have not been available before. It is to be regretted that most of the tables present only means without measures of variability, in spite of the fact that the author emphasizes the importance of individual variation.

One of the most useful sections contains the figures, at the back of the book, which show how to present in various graphic forms data concerning an individual child.



New Wine in Old Bottles

Kenneth Soddy (Ed.)

Mental Health and Infant Development. Vol. I: **Papers and Discussions.** Vol. II: **Case Histories.** (Proceedings of the International Seminar, Chichester, England, 19 July-10 August 1952.)

New York: Basic Books, 1955.
\$4.50.

By URIE BRONFENBRENNER
Cornell University

THIS PUBLICATION presents a paradox. Though the papers and case studies are the work of "twenty-four leading international figures" representing three nations and four disciplines, nevertheless they give but an incomplete and unbalanced picture of the present state of our scientific knowledge regarding infant development and its relation to mental health.

The omission that the American child psychologist is apt to find most disquieting is, to put it briefly, himself. Only in earlier incarnations does he appear in these pages—as the magpie-like collector of longitudinal records, as the compiler of normative statistics, or as the *ad hoc* interpreter of clinical material on impressionistic, literary, and tacitly moralistic grounds. His present-day role as the explorer of general hypotheses and the designer of experiments is preempted here, ironically enough, by the psychoanalyst.

Thus in Volume I it is the papers of John Bowlby, Anna Freud, and Rene Spitz which pass beyond the self-assuring exhortation and limited concreteness of

many of the essays to pose the challenging theoretical questions that call for imaginatively conceived and appropriately executed research designs. Even these comparatively able contributions are, however, little more than restatements of research findings and hypotheses that have been published previously, often in more effective form (e.g., Bowlby's well-known WHO monograph on *Maternal Care and Mental Health*).

Failure to rise above the level of concreteness and multitudinous detail becomes an even more serious problem in the case studies of Volume II. There the relatively few interpretations are limited to explanations of the behavior of a particular child with virtually no concern expressed for general principles of development. Now the stated purpose of collecting case material from three countries was to further "realization of the differences between cultures in major assumptions and child rearing practices," yet no analyses are offered comparing case studies from England, France, and the United States. This task is presumably left as an educational exercise for the reader. He will not succeed, for not only are there marked differences among the interests and practices of case workers (both within as well as across cultures), but the sampling of published cases is such as to preclude valid comparison. The two British cases, for example, are also Jewish; the French families are of the urban and the rural working-class; the Americans are middle-class college graduates.

THE material presented in these two volumes was used as a basis for discussion by the fifty members of the international seminar sponsored by the World Federation of Mental Health. The introductory chapters in both books indicate that, whatever the limitations of the material from a scientific point of view, it apparently served a useful function in stimulating, encouraging, and coordinating the work of the conference members. Even for this group, however, it is regrettable that the picture of research on mental health presented by the contributors was more typical of the confused infancy of this field of endeavor than of its now-flourishing and more promising adolescence.

Educational Psychology Sociologized

James B. Stroud

Psychology in Education (2nd Ed.)

New York: Longmans, Green, 1956.
Pp. xii + 617. \$5.00.

By VICTOR H. NOLL
Michigan State University

STROUD'S book "is addressed to senior-college and graduate students and teachers." The author states that "it provides a psychological treatment of practical problems in education and a systematic exposition of psychological data basic to education. It also gives mature consideration... to various psychological phenomena that are basic to critical reflections about educational problems." These are the purposes as stated in the preface to the first edition and there is no indication of a change in the second.

The major emphases in the revised edition, as in the first, are on social factors in education, learning, and the psychology of school subjects and methods. In the first edition, there were chapters on perception and mental development, emotion and feeling, personality and adjustment, and conditions of motivation. These do not appear in the revised edition; most of the material on perception, emotion, and feeling has been dropped; the rest has been largely integrated into other chapters. The revision contains new chapters entitled *Education and Social Class*, *Mental Hygiene and the School Child*, *The Profession of Teaching* and *The Education of Exceptional Children*. The bulk of the material in these chapters is based on research and writing published since 1945.

The first edition had a strong sociological flavor which is even stronger in the revision. The first four chapters might well have been written by a sociologist with some assistance from an anthropologist. The references are mainly to publications in these fields. This slant is in keeping with present-day trends, and the interdisciplinary approach is commendable. One might maintain, however, that four chapters out of sixteen, and better than one-sixth of the total number of

pages, represent an emphasis out of proportion to the remainder of the book, one more appropriate in a work on social psychology.

ON the other hand, it seems to this reviewer that some areas of educational psychology that are generally emphasized do not seem adequately treated here. There is but one chapter on measurement and it deals entirely with intelligence. Except for a couple of pages on "the examination" in Chapter XII, *Teacher and Pupil*, there is no discussion of measurement of achievement, to say nothing of interests, personality, or aptitudes. Surely no textbook in this field can neglect this important area of teacher responsibility. A similar criticism can be made of the area of *Mental Hygiene*. Although the discussion is improved over the chapter on *Personality and Adjustment* in the first edition, it still leaves something to be desired as a teacher-oriented presentation of the problems in this area.

The treatments of learning theory and reading are excellent, both greatly strengthened over the first edition. The net effect of the revision has been well on the positive side. The writing has been improved in clarity and felicity of expression. It is characterized also by touches of humor, keen observation, and sound common sense, all to the good in a textbook, or any other writing for that matter. Stroud's book is a good one. The author can be said, on the whole, to have achieved his stated purposes. Both author and publisher are to be congratulated for enhancing the value of a useful work by this revision.

Question: What are the two missing terms in the sequence: — 1 8 2 8 1 8 2 8 ?

Answer: 2 7.182818285 ...

—L. J. SAVAGE



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FILMS

By ADOLPH MANOIL, Editor

In this issue CP presents a list of Audio-Visual Books and Materials, completes the reviews on Psychotherapy begun in the previous issue, and begins reviews on Child Psychology.

Audio-Visual Books and Materials Received

[PUBLICATIONS, REPORTS, GUIDES, CATALOGS, AND SIMILAR COMMENTARIES]

RICHARD H. HENNEMAN AND EUGENE R. LONG. *A comparison of the visual and auditory senses as channels for data presentation*. Wright Air Development Center (Tech. Rep. No. 54-363). Pp. v + 38.

ROBERT DE KEIFFER AND LEE W. COCHRAN. *Manual of audio-visual techniques*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Pp. iv + 220. \$3.60.

F. DEAN MCCLUSKY. *The A-V bibliography*. (Rev. ed.) Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown, 1955. Pp. xi + 218. \$3.75.

DANIEL A. MALAMUD. *Teaching a human relations workshop*. Chicago: Center for the study of Liberal Arts Education for Adults, 1955. Pp. iii + 35.

MARIE K. MASON. *Visual hearing films: a complete sequence of instructional units for use in teaching visual comprehension of speech*. (Description of thirty 16-mm. silent and color films, about 8 min. each.) Columbus: Department of Speech, Ohio State University. Pp. 9.

MARIGENE MULLIGAN. *Variables in the reception of visual speech from motion pictures*. (Master's thesis.) Columbus: Department of Speech, Ohio State University, 1955.

J. H. ROTHSTEIN AND T. O'CONNOR. *Films on the handicapped: an annotated directory*. Washington, D. C.: International Council for Exceptional Children, N. E. A., 1955. Pp. vi + 56. \$1.00.

LESTER B. SANDS. *Audio-visual procedures in teaching*. New York: Ronald Press, 1956. Pp. viii + 670. \$6.00.

Audio-visual aids catalog, 1954, and supplement, 1955. Provo, Utah: Audio-

visual Center, Brigham Young University, 1954, 1955. Pp. vii + 216; 40.

Audio-visual aids catalog. (Arizona State College Bulletin 12, 1954, with supplement.) Tempe: Central Arizona Film Cooperative. Pp. 74 + 13.

Audio-visual education. Norman: Educational Materials Services, University of Oklahoma Bulletin, March, 1956. Pp. 170.

Audio-visual materials (1954-56), and supplement 1955-56. Iowa City: Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, State University of Iowa, 1956. Pp. 137 + 22.

Catalog of audio-visual materials, 1955-1957. Ames: Visual Instruction Service, Iowa State College, 1956. Pp. 142.

Catalog of classroom teaching films for Georgia schools. Atlanta, Georgia: State Department of Education, 1955. Pp. xxxiii + 309.

Catalog of Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1955-56. Wilmette, Ill.: Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1956. Pp. 39.

Catalogue des films non-flame du format réduit (16 mm.) mis en distribution au Service Cinématographique du Ministère de l'Instruction Publique. 7, Quai du Commerce, Bruxelles, 1954. Pp. 367.

1955-56 sales and rental catalog, Center for Mass Communication of Columbia University Press. New York: Columbia University Press, 1956. Pp. 96.

Coordinator, The Film Guide issue. Oregon Coordinating Council on Social Hygiene and Family Life, iv, 1, 1955.

Coronet films catalogue, 1956-57. Chicago: Coronet Films, 1956. Pp. 96.

Educational motion pictures, 1956 catalog. Bloomington: Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, 1956. Pp. 557.

Film directory. Ann Arbor: Audio-Visual Education Center, University of Michigan, 1955. Pp. 365.

Films for better teaching (1954-55). Salt Lake City: Audio-Visual Bureau, University of Utah, 1955. Pp. 223.

Films for classroom use. New York: Teaching Film Custodians, 1954. Pp. 95.

Films on the sciences. London: British Film Institute, 1954. Pp. 24.

Filmstrips. Ann Arbor: Audio-Visual Education Center, University of Michigan, 1956. Pp. vi + 74.

Gesamtverzeichnis der wissenschaftlichen Filme.

Gottingen: Institut für den Wissenschaftlichen Film, 1955. Pp. 96.

Guide to audio-visual aids, 1956-57. Champaign: Division of University Extension, University of Illinois, 1956. Pp. 610.

Index to Air Force Personnel and Training Research Center, 1954 technical documentary reports. Research Bulletin, Air Force Personnel & Training Research Center, 1954 (AFPTRC-TR-54-132). Pp. v + 49.

Index to audio-visual aids 1956-57. Champaign: University of Illinois, Division of University Extension, 1956. Pp. 110.

National tape recording catalog, 1955 supplement. (Sponsored by Dept. of A-V Instruction, NEA Association for Education by Television, Kent State University.) Washington, D. C. (1201 Sixteenth St., Washington 6): Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, 1956. Pp. 28. \$.25.

Psychological cinema register: catalog, 1954, 1955, 1956. University Park: Audio-Visual Aids Library, Pennsylvania State University, 1956. Pp. 72 (with supplementary lists).

Psychological cinema register: supplement 1956. (Includes tape recording list.) University Park: Pennsylvania State University, 1956. Pp. 27.

Tapes for teaching: catalogue No. 2. Corvallis: Radio Station KOAC, General Extension Division, Oregon State System of Higher Education, 1955. Pp. 80.

Three-dimensional teaching aids for trade and industrial instruction. Washington, D. C. U.S. Gov't. Printing Office, 1953. Pp. 91.

U.S. Government films for school and industry. New York: United World Films, 1955. Pp. 124.

RESEARCH REPORTS

(All Special Devices Center Technical Reports listed below are available for sale through U.S. Dep't. of Commerce, Office of Technical Services, Washington 25, D.C., at prices indicated.)

PHILIP ASH AND NATHAN JASPEN. *Optimum physical viewing conditions for a rear projection daylight screen*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-37), 1953. Pp. iv + 17. \$.50.

ALLEN L. EDWARDS. *Applications of ranking in film research and the statistical analysis of ranks*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Human Engineering Rep. No. 530-01-1), 1952. Pp. iv + 142. \$.50.

- RICHARD M. FLETCHER. *Profile analysis and its effect on learning when used to shorten recorded film commentaries*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-55), 1955. Pp. 26.
- L. P. GREENHILL in conjunction with Naval Research Company 4-4. *The evaluation of instructional films by a trained panel using a film analysis form*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-57), 1955. Pp. 68.
- L. P. GREENHILL. *The recording of audience reactions by infra-red photography*. (Procedures developed by L. P. Greenhill and L. F. Kepler, Jr.) Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-56), 1955. Pp. iv + 11.
- PAUL M. HURST, JR. *Relative effectiveness of verbal introductions to kinescope recordings and training films*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-42), 1955. Pp. iv + 24.
- ROBERT JACKSON. *Learning from kinescopes and films*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 20-TV-1), 1952. Pp. iv + 15.
- EDWARD P. MCCOY. *An application of research findings to training film production*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-44), 1955. Pp. iv + 29.
- CHARLES J. MCINTYRE. *Evaluation of motion pictures to simulate reality in the Thematic Apperception Test*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-47), 1955. Pp. 12.
- JOSEPH A. MURNIN. *Comparison of training media: transfer of principles involved in a manipulative skill; operation of the aircraft load adjuster slide rule*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-103), 1955. Pp. 36.
- H. E. NELSON AND A. W. VANDERMEERE. *The relative effectiveness of differing commentaries in an animated film on elementary meteorology*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-43), 1955. Pp. iv + 19.
- ROBERT RADLOW. *The relation of some measures of ability to measures of learning from sound motion pictures*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-58), 1955. Pp. 14.
- BERNARD RIMLAND. *Effectiveness of several methods of repetition of films*. Report prepared by C. J. McIntyre and H. Dennis Sherck. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-45), 1955. Pp. iv + 25.
- ELISABETH MAYES STEIN. *Effect of mental hygiene films on normal and abnormal individuals*. (Report prepared by Charles J. McIntyre.) Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-46), 1955. Pp. iv + 42.
- Instructional film research reports: rapid mass learning*. Port Washington, N. Y.: Special Devices Center (Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-36, Navexos P-1220), 1953. Pp. iv + 35 + research reports separately paged. \$8.00. It includes the following research reports:
- SARAH G. ALLISON AND PHILIP ASH. *Relationship of anxiety to learning from films*. Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-24, 1951. Pp. iv + 15.
- PHILIP ASH. *The relative effectiveness of massed versus spaced film presentation*. Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-3, 1949. Pp. iv + 79. \$1.00.
- PHILIP ASH AND BRUCE J. CARLTON. *The value of note-taking during film learning*. Tech. Rep. No. 269-7-21, 1951. Pp. iv + 10.
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FILMS

A place to live. Dynamic Films, Inc., 16-mm., b&w, sound, 24 min., 1955. \$192.00, rental \$8.00.

Activity group therapy. (Jewish Board of Gdians.) Center for Mass Communication, Columbia University Press, 16-mm., b&w, sound, 50 min., 1950. rental, \$10.00.

And so they grow. Campus Film Productions, 16-mm., b&w or color, sound, 28 min., 1955. \$75.00; color \$200.00.

Art and the growing child. Films for Education, Filmstrip, color, 58 frames and 10" 33 $\frac{1}{4}$ recording with signal, 1956. Filmstrip and recording \$15.00.

Fiddle dee dee. (Norman McLaren.) National Film Board of Canada, International Film Bureau, Inc., 16-mm., color, sound, 4 min., 1947. \$37.50, rental \$2.50.

The gossip. Young America Films, Inc., 16-mm., b&w, sound, 12 min., 1955. \$62.50.

How to succeed in school. Young America Films, 16-mm., b&w, sound, 18 min., 1955. \$50.00.

Human heredity. E. C. Brown Trust, Port-

land, Oregon, 16-mm., color, sound, 18 min., 1955. \$85.00.

It's in the cards. International Film Bureau, 16-mm., b&w sound, 18 min., 1955. \$85.00.

Neighbors. (Norman McLaren.) International Film Bureau, 16-mm., color, sound, 9 min., 1954. \$100.00.

New doorways to learning. Cathedral Films, 16-mm., b&w, sound, 18 min., 1953. \$25.00.

Our invisible committees. National Training Laboratory in Group Development, 16-mm., b&w, sound, 25 min., 1952. \$85.00.

Out of the shadows. Campus Film Productions, Inc., 16-mm., b&w, sound, 18 min., 1955. \$75.00. Free of charge for single showings.

Role playing and guidance. (Robert Bartlett Haas.) University of California at Los Angeles, 16-mm., b&w, sound, 14 min., 1953. \$67.50.

Role playing in human relations. National Training Laboratory in Group Development, 16-mm., b&w, sound, 25 min., 1947. \$85.00.

Rumor. Center for Mass Communication, Columbia University Press, discussion film, 16-mm., b&w, sound, 7 min., 1955. \$50.00.

Still going places! Active management of disability in the aged. Pfizer Laboratories, 16-mm., sound, 40 min., 1955.

To serve the mind. Department of National Health and Welfare of Canada, International Film Bureau, Inc., 16-mm., b&w, sound, 25 min., 1954. Rental \$7.50.

The search. A series of 16-mm. motion picture films, b&w, sound, 1955. Each approx. 27 min. Available through Young America Films, 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y. \$125.00 each; rental \$5.00.

Automatic machines (Massachusetts Institute of Technology)

Automobile safety (Cornell University)

Aviation medicine (USAF School of Aviation Medicine)

Child development (Yale University)

Community education program (University of Louisville)

Deafness in children (Johns Hopkins University)

English language institute (University of Michigan)

Folklore research (University of Arkansas)

Heart disease (University of Minnesota)

Inadequate school facilities (Harvard University)

Intergroup relations (Fisk University)

Juvenile delinquency (Wayne University)

Marriage council (University of Pennsylvania)

Mental illness (Tulane University) 2 parts

Noise and health (University of California at Los Angeles)

Penology research (University of California)

Physical fitness (University of Illinois)

Physical rehabilitation (New York University)

Search sums up, The (Summary program)

Stuttering (State University of Iowa)

Visual perception research (Ohio State University)

Waco-San Angelo disaster study (University of Texas)

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Psychotherapy

Introduction to Psychodrama

J. L. Moreno. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 10 min., 1952. Available through Therapeutic Film Production, Inc., P. O. Box 311, Beacon, N. Y. \$60.00, rental \$8.00.

Psychodrama as a therapeutic technique is clearly demonstrated through acting, stills, and supplementary commentary by the narrator.

The film, with Dr. Moreno playing the role of director, illustrates the setting for enacting a psychodrama, and includes: (1) the three-level stage, (2) the protagonist, (3) the director or therapist, (4) auxiliary 'egos,' and (5) the audience.

The techniques of representation (projection of oneself), of reversal (changing of roles), and the 'double' technique (subject meets his double, the 'tele' phenomenon) are interestingly demonstrated.

The possibility of 'mirror' reaction from the people in the audience, the need for group discussion, and the importance of warming up of the participants are also indicated.

This film is a didactic presentation of psychodrama as a psychotherapeutic technique. It could be used for demonstration, for training and also as a basis for discussion. The significance of the film should be increased if supplemented

with the reading of J. L. Moreno, *Psychodrama and the Psychopathology of Interpersonal Relations* (Beacon, N. Y.: Beacon House, Psychodrama monograph No. 16, 1945, pp. 68) and J. L. Moreno, *Psychodrama*, Ch. 6 in *Six Approaches to Psychotherapy* (New York: Dryden Press, 1955). For a short critique of psychodrama, see William U. Snyder, *The Present Status of Psychotherapeutic Counseling* (*Psychol. Bull.*, 1947, **44**, 333-335).

Child Psychology

Learning Is Searching: A Third-Grade Studies Man's Early Tools

Directed by L. Joseph Stone. Photographed by Joseph Bohmer, Department of Child Study, Vassar College. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 30 min., 1956. Available through New York University Film Library, 26 Washington Place, New York 3, N. Y., and other distributors. \$125.00, rental \$6.00 a day.

This is a documentary-research film that demonstrates clearly the searching method as specifically applied to teaching and learning. A third-grade group of pupils at the New Lincoln School, N. Y. C., are engaged in studying tools and their origins. The problem is set in terms of children's own interests and experiences. Through observation, individual work, comparisons, use of references, and field work, the children participate actively in the total project. The searching is meaningfully related to other school activities and the immediate needs of the group. The children also write their own 'textbook' and prepare an exhibit. The film presents the method of search as a basic educational approach in which teacher and pupils are actively engaged in the learning process.

The film is the thirteenth of a series produced by the Child Study Department of Vassar College. It represents a valuable contribution to the study of elementary school curriculum with emphasis on basic principles of child development. The presentation illustrates the role of the teacher as a guide and participating member of the learning team, and also the eagerness with which the child participates in activities meaningful at his level of development.

The film emphasizes the concept of education as a bringing out of potential capacities and not as a simple training device. It could be profitably used with classes in child psychology as well as for the training of elementary school teachers.

Used with lay audiences it should promote a better understanding of the function of education and its possible impact on child development.

The documentary film on child behavior presents certain technical problems. L. Joseph Stone, Some problems of filming children's behavior: a discussion based on experience in the production of "Studies of normal personality development, *Child Development*, 1952, vol. 23, pp. 227-233, should be useful in using the film *Learning Is Searching*.



CHILDREN'S 'TEXTBOOK'
(From the film *Learning Is Searching*. New York University Film Library)

Art and the Growing Child

Temima Gezari; Elliott H. Kone, Leonie Brandon, and A. Elisabeth Chase, consultants. Ann Loring, narrator. Filmstrip, color, 58 frames and one 10", 33 $\frac{1}{4}$ LP recording, with signal, approx. 13 min. per side, 1956. Available through Films for Education, 1066 Chapel St., New Haven, Connecticut. \$15.00, filmstrip and record.

Painting as a means of expression characteristic of various age levels is presented through a series of 58 color frames showing the product of various children aged 3 to 13. The paintings are freely made and their general composition, use of colors and subject, show differential aspects with age. The most characteristic aspect is the passage from nonobjective confused patterns (at 3 years of age) to representational forms at 5 and above, and the clear expression of feelings at 9.

The tendency of the child to represent by an increase in size the objects of greater importance to him is also illustrated. The content of the paintings, moreover, becomes richer with age.

The filmstrip represents paintings of average children, and could be used for stimulating interest and painting activities in children, also for providing adults with a better understanding of this medium of expression in children. It could be used, moreover, for the analysis of characteristic developmental stages as expressed in free paintings.

The recording that is synchronized with the filmstrip has two slides, one for use with adults, the other with children. A special discussion guide is provided with the filmstrip.

Don't Be Afraid

Rose H. Alschuler, collaborator. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white or color, sound, 12 min., 1953. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$50.00; color \$100.00.

The nature of fear in children is analyzed and illustrated in terms understandable to middle-grade pupils.

The film presents a young boy going to bed. Left alone in the dark he is frightened and calls his mother. She realizes that the boy is afraid of the dark, although he does not say so.

The mother explains to the child various conditions resulting in fear and makes him understand that being afraid is a common way of response to certain situations. Talking over one's fears with someone we trust, distinguishing between actually dangerous situations and those only apparently so, should result in a feeling of security which is the best antidote to fear.

The film could be used both for clarifying and analyzing the nature of fear, and as an educational tool with children.

A teacher's guide, with indications for use, references to related films and the script, is provided with the film.



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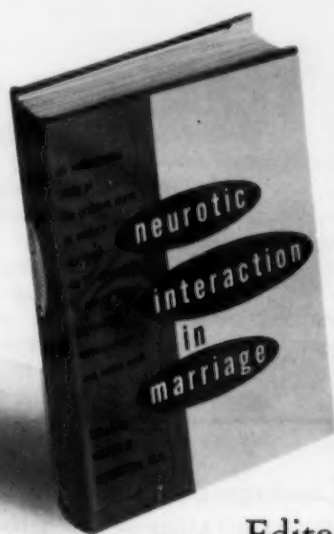
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